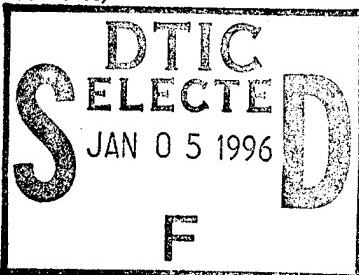


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**Handbook on Planning for  
Community Policing on Air Force Installations**

4<sup>th</sup> Security Police Squadron

Seymour Johnson Air Force Base, North Carolina

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## Executive Summary

Community policing is rapidly becoming the dominant policing philosophy in America. However, there is a great deal of controversy over the philosophy, especially when it comes to applying it on a military installation. The unique, closed environment on military installations does not have many of the social forces that gave rise to community policing. Additionally, military police units and civilian police departments are vastly different in organization and culture.

The fact remains that community policing, when distilled down to its basic concept, is a responsive attitude to the concerns and problems of the community. When taken in this simple form, any military police unit must agree that this philosophy is common sense. Community policing philosophy is associated with the quality movement, but has the important distinction of being specifically designed and developed through police experience.

When factors such as continuity, military structure, jurisdiction, and training are taken into account, it becomes clear that community policing tactics as well as the philosophy can be adapted to military installations. In order to implement a military community policing program, a planning team should be assembled to determine where the unit and community currently stand. Once perceptions and problems are measured, the planning team needs to put the unit's mission and values into words that reflect a concern for the community. The planning team then needs to prepare changes to operational procedures and new tactics that further this mission. Once the entire road map is assembled, unit leadership must make a commitment to implement these organizational changes.

Using some of the basic tools provided in this handbook and some of the lessons learned at Seymour Johnson Air Force Base, a military policing unit should be able to get started in implementing a realistic community policing program.

## Table of Contents

<b>INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>DEFINITIONS .....</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>COMMUNITY POLICING .....</b>	<b>8</b>
DEVELOPMENT OF UNITED STATES LAW ENFORCEMENT .....	9
DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNITY POLICING .....	14
CURRENT COMMUNITY POLICING PHILOSOPHY .....	17
COMMUNITY POLICING AND MILITARY CULTURE.....	19
<i>Jurisdiction .....</i>	19
<i>Rank.....</i>	20
<i>Perceived Need/Privacy.....</i>	20
<i>PCS/TDY's.....</i>	21
<i>Organization/Supervision .....</i>	23
<i>Training Issues.....</i>	24
DESIGNING AN INSTALLATION MILITARY COMMUNITY POLICING PHILOSOPHY .....	25
<i>Higher Headquarters Guidance and Dedication.....</i>	25
<i>Developing a Strategic Plan.....</i>	26
<i>Planning Considerations .....</i>	28
Training issues.....	28
Supervision/Evaluations.....	28
Continuity.....	29
Identifying with neighborhoods. ....	30
Organization.....	31
<i>Community Policing Tools.....</i>	32
Surveys.....	32
Community councils.....	36
Community Officers,.....	37
Problem solving strategies (SARA).....	38
Information management.....	39
<i>Implementation and Feedback.....</i>	40
<b>THE SEYMOUR JOHNSON AIR FORCE BASE EXPERIENCE .....</b>	<b>41</b>
<b>CONCLUSIONS .....</b>	<b>44</b>
<b>REFERENCES.....</b>	<b>46</b>
<b>APPENDIX A .....</b>	<b>50</b>
<b>APPENDIX B .....</b>	<b>55</b>
<b>APPENDIX C .....</b>	<b>89</b>
<b>APPENDIX D .....</b>	<b>95</b>
<b>APPENDIX E .....</b>	<b>99</b>
<b>APPENDIX F.....</b>	<b>112</b>
<b>APPENDIX G .....</b>	<b>114</b>

## Introduction

Community Policing has become the law enforcement catch phrase of the 1990's (Trojanowicz, 1994). Every politician knows it and uses it, as shown by the 1994 Crime Bill which had specific provisions for hiring a large number of "community officers" (U.S. Department of Justice, 1994). This new method of policing does, indeed, have potential, but it has also caused a lot of controversy, as shown by an unofficial poll of police officers on America On-line. Of the officers who responded to the question of "How do you feel about community policing," many felt that community policing was rhetoric and dangerously focused police efforts away from "real crime" (DAVE2470, 1994).

As with many new concepts, community policing has been plagued with people talking about it and implementing it without really knowing what community policing is. An example that most Air Force Security Police have encountered is the bicycle patrol. The bike patrol has often been the only Air Force response to community policing, but does having a bike patrol mean that the unit has a community policing program? The same question faces many police departments across the country today: what does community policing mean and what is it supposed to do for you?

This handbook is intended to provide the military police organization, specifically Security Police units, with a brief background on community policing and some considerations to ponder when planning a program for the military community. This document is not designed to replace or contradict Headquarters, Air Force or Major Air Command guidance, rather it is the product of the experience of the Fourth Security Police Squadron at Seymour Johnson Air Force Base and the research resources of the University of South Carolina. This document and its

appendices should serve to help a Security Police unit ask the right questions of itself when launching or evaluating their community policing program.

### Definitions

The most important part of any concept is to succinctly define what it is you are talking about; in the area of community policing this is no easy task. Every scholar seems to have their own idea of what community policing is and what it should include. Perhaps the most important definition for a Security Police unit is the Air Force definition. Air Force Pamphlet 31-2012, “Air Force Community Policing,” defines community policing as:

“a method of policing that encourages a partnership that identifies community safety issues, determines resources, and applies innovative strategies designed to create and sustain healthy, vital neighborhoods. It is a proactive, decentralized policing approach designed to reduce crime, disorder, and fear of crime.” (p. 3)

This definition takes the view that community policing is a systemic philosophy for the organization. That is, community policing is not a program, but an all inclusive organizational philosophy that should permeate everything the unit does.

Most modern academicians define community policing in similar terms; the national police executive forum at the John F. Kennedy School of Government has written extensively that community policing is not a tactic but an organizational philosophy (Meese, 1993). These scholars have also written extensively on the skills needed to change organizational philosophy, further evidence that this is the central issue to community policing in their view (Sparrow, 1988).

A researcher at the Police Foundation, Mary Ann Wycoff, (1988) defines community policing by stating that most community policing efforts include non-threatening, supportive interactions between the police and citizens which include:

1. Listening to citizens that may be neither victims nor perpetrators of crimes.
2. Taking citizens' definitions of community problems seriously, even when they are contrary to the perceptions of the police themselves.
3. Solving the identified problems, sometimes by having the police and the community work together.

Wycoff represents a group of law enforcement academicians that view the essence of community policing is the interaction of police and community members, which was originally was categorized as neighborhood oriented policing. This group feels that if the police are responsive to the community, then good relations will result and crime will be better controlled.

The unofficial leader of this group of thinkers was Dr. Robert Trojanowicz, who developed his concept of community policing from police community interaction, he defines community policing as the nine P's:

"Community policing is a philosophy of full-service, personalized policing where the same officer patrols and works in the same area on a permanent basis, from a decentralized place, working in a proactive partnership with citizens to identify and solve problems." (Trojanowicz, 1994, p. 6).

While Dr. Trojanowicz's definition has many of the elements of the Air Force definition, he obviously felt that a permanency was an important factor in successful community policing.

Another group of scholars developed community policing from an emphasis on problem solving, represented by the scholar Herman Goldstein (1977). Goldstein defines community policing as:

"The tactics of community policing are many and varied, common elements include:

- Increased police-citizen accessibility
  - Use of problem oriented approaches to policing
  - Aggressive and/or punitive order maintenance strategies requiring police intervention without a specific complaint
  - Increasing contact between the police and community organizations, and supporting the development of community organization in those neighborhoods where it does not exist
  - Strengthening community cohesion, including perceptions of community order and citizen willingness to 'retake the streets'
  - Encouraging and sponsoring community crime prevention programs"
- (Greene & Mastrofski, 1988, p. xii)

Goldstein originally innovated problem oriented policing, a philosophy of trying to see the cause behind neighborhood crime and prevent it by solving the problem (Goldstein, 1977). Goldstein and others began to incorporate problem oriented policing into community oriented policing as a complementary line of thinking.

Looking at the Air Force Pamphlet again, it is apparent that the authors defined Air Force community policing with both problem oriented policing and neighborhood oriented policing in mind. The Air Force definition is wide enough to allow installation planners a great deal of latitude in creating their community policing program. With this in mind, it is necessary to understand how the community policing school of thought evolved.

### Community Policing

Community policing developed out of the ongoing evolution of law enforcement. Whether or not it will help solve the problems facing police and communities in the United States remains to be seen. Community policing was developed to address shortcomings faced by

the law enforcement apparatus of the 1970's. In order to better understand community policing it is necessary to understand how law enforcement evolved in the United States.

### Development of United States Law Enforcement

Policing in the United States has not always been a person in a blue uniform responding to complaints as you see on the streets of our country today. Some of the first settlers, the pilgrims, agreed on a method of law enforcement based on religion when they arrived in the new world, through the Mayflower Compact (Friedman, 1993). Throughout the history of the colonies, it was often the case that no law enforcement function existed until disorder made it necessary (Fraser, 1995). In some areas the citizens adopted the English concept of the shire-reeve, or modern day sheriff who was designated by community leadership to maintain order (Fraser, 1995). This system was most widely used in the south, where the feudal nature of the plantation economy fostered such an arrangement (Fraser, 1995). Other New World settlements relied on the "hue and cry," that is, when a crime was committed, all citizens were expected to raise the alarm and help bring the criminal to justice (Fraser, 1995).

After the American Revolution, the new nation had to establish the standards for order maintenance in the United States. The prevailing attitude of the United States, drawn from the abuses of power of the English crown during colonial times, has been a fear of strong federal authority and a national police force (Friedman, 1993). Therefore, the constitution only directly established the Supreme Court and loosely outlined the Executive Branch to execute the laws of the land; the constitution does not specifically spell out how the police shall be organized or enforce the laws of the land. The founding fathers wrote the constitution so that there would be

enough latitude to make it an enduring document, adaptable to the changing times. This set the stage for experimentation and evolution in law enforcement.

The development of industrialized urban centers reduced the effectiveness of the “hue and cry” (Friedman, 1993) The early 1800’s saw a movement to establish an organized, centrally controlled, professional police force. The first police force was the London Metropolitan Police established in 1829 by the Metropolitan Police Act (Sparrow, Moore, & Kennedy, 1990). This legislation was introduced by Sir Robert Peel, the British Home Secretary, who envisioned a well-educated, professional group of law enforcement officers centrally organized and controlled by the state (Sparrow et. al., 1990). Peel envisioned not a force to catch criminals, but an agency to help prevent crime; to him the best measure of a good police force was an absence of crime (Stead, 1977).

The United States was also encountering similar problems in its metropolitan areas, but the strong fear of central authority prevented a federal response to the problem. Rather, individual municipalities tried different approaches and learned from the experience of other cities (Fraser, 1995). The earliest experiment with a professional police force occurred in Philadelphia as the result of the provisions of an elderly woman’s will (Fraser, 1995). When the money ran out however, the city did not pick up the funding and the police force went out of existence (Fraser, 1995). By the 1870’s however, all major cities in the United States had some sort of professional police force (Sparrow et. al., 1990).

The United States also is the scene of a unique chapter in law enforcement history, the wild west. The dime novel stories of Wyatt Earp and Billy the Kid continue today to romanticize this period of enormous lawlessness. The United States government set about settling the

western territories in a haphazard fashion, encouraging settlement, but failing to install local law enforcement agencies prior to settlement (Fraser, 1995). The federal government had established agencies to meet its responsibilities of protecting the nation from external threats such as American Indians; and protecting federal revenue interests and services such as the postal channels; but in the tradition of keeping federal authority out of local law enforcement, the residents in federal territories were often left to protect themselves from fellow citizens (Fraser, 1995). This left vigilantism, posses, lynch mobs, and locally hired sheriffs to enforce laws in the territories (Friedman, 1993).

Added to the problem of romanticizing the excessive violence of wild west law enforcement, city police forces had developed as local agencies under the control of largely corrupt ward politicians. As a result, in the late 1800's, most American law enforcement agencies abused their powers and were extensively corrupt (Sparrow et. al., 1990) . Police corruption was so rampant that one district in New York City was dubbed the "Tenderloin" as a result of the lucrative bribes and graft that accompanied duty in the area (Sparrow et. al., 1990).

In 1929, President Herbert Hoover chartered a commission to look into the general failure of the United States criminal justice system to control crime (Friedman, 1993). The Report on Police concluded that control of the police by local politicians is an invitation to corruption and any hope of a viable police force is linked to the sound management of the force by a well-educated and trained Chief of Police (National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, 1931). A famous police thinker of the time, August Vollmer, chiefly authored the report and called for a more autonomous police force under the central authority of a police chief who could only be replaced for a well-proven cause (National Commission on Law Observance

and Enforcement, 1931). The report also stated the need for better trained police officers, since research revealed that the police of the time were woefully unqualified, poorly trained, and were underpaid for the responsibility and authority they had (National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, 1931). The Report on Police was responsible for ushering in a new era of policing called the Reform Era (Sparrow et. al., 1990).

Reform Era policing originated with the principles of August Vollmer and the example of O. W. Wilson (Sparrow et. al., 1990). Vollmer set the standards that police attempted to achieve in his Report on Police, and Wilson, a student of Vollmer's at the University of California, is largely credited with implementing them in a model for the rest of the country to follow (Stead, 1977). Wilson's leadership of the Oklahoma City Police force, notorious for scandals, showed the nation that a strong military style organization could solve many of the corruption problems, and the use of motor vehicle patrols could greatly enhance the police's ability to respond to crimes (Sparrow, et. al., 1990). The reformers were big advocates of using technology to enhance the effectiveness of the police. They felt that the faster the police could arrive on the scene of a crime, the more likely they were to catch the criminal in the act or track them down (Sparrow et. al., 1990).

Police officials were reluctant, at first, to model their departments after the vision of Vollmer; after all, they were profiting from their alliance with local politicians (Sparrow et. al., 1990). However, as pressure to clean up policing increased, police leaders began to adopt Wilson's interpretation of Vollmer's ideas, since the reform model also included the attraction of making the police chief a powerful figure in local politics (Sparrow, et al., 1990). To prevent corruption, the reform police organization was modeled after a military unit, with a strict chain of

command and accountability. Police headquarters became the center of power and ward precincts became the field units of headquarters. The reform organization took the responsibility of investigating major crimes away from the precincts and placed specialized central investigative squads in charge, as part of the specialist mentality that pervaded Wilson's reform model (Sparrow et al., 1990).

The reform model succeeded in making the police accountable to central authority and more efficient in operating. However, the reform model had major flaws, it left the police with crime control through arrest as their primary function, it relied on rapid response to catch criminals in the act, and primarily it distanced the police from the communities they served (Sparrow et. al., 1990). The police came to view themselves as the thin blue line standing between society and lawlessness. The reform model largely succeeded in removing local community involvement as a source of police corruption; however, the trusted local patrolman was replaced by an authoritative, impersonal police officer in a squad car (Sparrow et. al., 1990).

The reform era also left the police hopelessly out of touch with the community it patrolled. Efforts to minimize police contact with the corrupting forces of the community, as well as placing the majority of patrol officers in motorized cars, prevented police officers from forming community ties (Sparrow et. al., 1990). This effect was amplified with the advent of the 911 central dispatching system, which prevented the local precinct house from having any contact with the community except when dispatched by headquarters (Sparrow, et. al., 1990). Communities began to feel alienated and viewed the police as invaders or even enemies.

The tactic of rapid response also became the subject of controversy. An experiment in 1974 by George Kelling showed that changing the amount of police patrol coverage in areas of

Kansas City failed to show a resulting change in the amount of crime (Sparrow et al., 1990). Additionally, the statistics show that the majority of reported crimes are reported after the fact, so no amount of rapid response will catch the perpetrator in the act (Sparrow, et. al., 1990). Studies have also shown that investigation and material evidence are rarely successful in solving a crime unless witnesses step forward to identify the criminal (Sparrow, et. al., 1990).

The justification of the 911 system was that it would allow the police to better serve the community. This principle has been criticized by numerous studies that showed the majority of calls to 911 involve not crimes in progress, but complaints on traffic, loud noise, or order maintenance, such as panhandlers and mischief (Sparrow et. al., 1990). Instead of bringing the police in closer contact with the communities they serve, the 911 system seems to have aggravated the alienation problem, by fostering an enormous workload that the police can't keep up with. These concerns caused James Q. Wilson and George L. Kelling (1982) to forward the idea that the majority of the populace was typically more immediately concerned with order maintenance crimes rather than the Part I Offenses of the Uniform Crime Report, focusing national interest on a new concept coming to be known as community policing (Trojanowicz, 1990).

#### Development of Community Policing

The law enforcement community of the 1970's and early 1980's found itself challenged with the failure to effectively control crime and the near collapse of social order in the inner cities and housing projects (Kelling, 1988). Desperate police chiefs began to experiment with new concepts that involved getting the police back into the community to gain trust and respect (Sparrow et. al., 1990). Foot patrols, Police Athletic Leagues, Crime Prevention Squads, and

Police-Community Relations Units came into existence to address the lack of partnership between the police and the communities they protected (Trojanowicz, 1990). These efforts eventually met with some successes and the concept of community policing began to take shape.

In 1983 Dr. Robert Trojanowicz of the University of Michigan founded the National Neighborhood Foot Patrol Center (National Center for Community Policing, 1995). This Department of Justice sponsored center started with the premise that putting police officers on foot around community streets would help foster better police-community relations and help deter crime. Initially Dr. Trojanowicz studied the effects of a neighborhood foot patrol program in Flint, Michigan, which showed a significant drop in crime and complaints (Trojanowicz, 1984). The center began to move rapidly toward a more comprehensive philosophy that stated the entire police department needed to be oriented to community needs. Individual police departments also began to experiment with comprehensive community relations programs in areas where social order had disintegrated and the police were viewed as enemies (Sparrow et al., 1990). Additionally, Herman Goldstein began to develop his problem solving approach to the law enforcement crisis in the late 1970's (Goldstein, 1977). His earliest writings dealt with problem solving techniques but did not deal with organizational philosophy.

A 1982 article in Atlantic Monthly magazine brought large scale attention to the basic concepts of community policing. In the article, "Broken Windows," authors James Q. Wilson and George L. Kelling (1982) proposed that the process of order maintenance is most important to community stability. They maintained that if community life is active and healthy, the community will remain largely orderly, but when signs of social decay like broken windows and abandoned cars begin to appear, community cohesion breaks down and social pressure to abide

in the law diminishes. Wilson and Kelling argued that the police should focus their attention on helping communities maintain order rather than waiting for a crime to be reported.

After the "Broken Windows" article, many police executives tried community officer programs, bike patrols, community relations units, and a myriad of other innovative programs to address their individual problems (Sparrow et. al., 1990). National focus on community policing came from the National Institute of Justice's Executive Session on Policing at the John F. Kennedy School of Government. These think-tank sessions brought scholars and practitioners together to develop a national law enforcement strategy. This diverse group began to chisel community policing into an organizational philosophy rather than a tactic. Over several sessions, the group contended that law enforcement in the United States needed to listen to the community it served, choose and train responsible officers, and change its organizational structure to support the efforts of the individual patrol officer.

In the late 1980's, numerous examples began to be seen of the police working with the community in order to provide better service. Any newspaper today is bound to contain some example of an innovative police-citizen program, with the national concern being shown by the provision for 100,000 community police officers in the 1994 Omnibus Crime Bill (U.S. Department of Justice, 1994). Community Policing programs can range from police officer's helping to clean up low income housing projects to a bicycle patrol on a military installation. The problem that remains, however, is that community policing requires more than an innovative patrol tactic or community awareness in order to become more than lip service (Sparrow, 1988).

Current Community Policing Philosophy

As noted in the definition section, current community policing philosophy includes a community responsive approach combined with problem solving techniques. The resources available to a community policing planner are enormous, both government and private industry have set up research forums, consortiums, and clearinghouses to develop and distribute information. Private industries are, of course, ultimately interested in the profit potential of community based law enforcement consulting and products.

The current community policing philosophy has taken on an organizational role in police departments. Malcolm Sparrow, a former Chief of Police in England, wrote in 1988 that police organizations as a whole need to change. Putting community policing into special units will not solve the underlying problems of police departments. Sparrow contends that with dedicated leadership, the entire organizational philosophy must be re-directed to a community based approach to law enforcement.

The community police department is also supported by Former Attorney General, Edwin Meese, (1993) who wrote that police departments must take a proactive role in crime prevention, with the key being the community policing philosophy. He also wrote that the individual police officer is the key to successful law enforcement, meaning proper selection, training, and organizational support is essential to allowing the officer to do their job (Meese, 1993). Meese (1993) responded to the criticism that community policing puts police officers back into a position where corruption could be rampant by stating that aggressive quality assurance is a must for a community oriented department. Through evaluations, surveys, and audits, Meese (1993) stated police departments can actually be held to a higher standard than they are currently.

As community policing took on the form of an organizational philosophy, it took on many of the elements from W. Edward Deming's total quality management (Trojanowicz & Carter, 1988). The influence of the quality movement in policing should not be a surprise since reform era policing was modeled after the industry management style of its day, Fredrick Taylor's Scientific Management (Stead, 1977). The quality movement has sparked a controversy in law enforcement, however. This controversy is that many police professionals feel that TQM is too "touchy-feely" for police work. This attitude usually results from a distorted view of the basic tenets of TQM: that the leadership of an organization must be willing to listen to the workers and customers; that those workers often know how to do their particular task better than senior managers; and that the needs of the customers should be listened to (Duncan & Matre, 1990). This concept does not erode police authority nor the authority of police leaders over subordinates if these tenets are followed. Quality management has too often been mistakenly associated with a message of the subordinate and customer are always right credo. If properly administered, an organizational philosophy of community policing should not erode but strengthen the police position as guardians of social order and the leadership responsibilities of police supervisors.

Community policing in 1995 has been defined and taken shape, but it is far from a proven method of law enforcement. The latter half of the 1990's and beyond will show whether community policing works to make law enforcement more effective, or serve to create an organization more concerned with the ends rather than the means, foster corruption, and make police the enforcers of local prejudices (Bayley, 1988). Both critics and supporters of community

policing agree that further study is needed to conclude if community policing is the correct road for United States law enforcement.

#### Community Policing and Military Culture

A number of problems exist with the community policing model when it is applied to the military installation. Community policing was created by civilian law enforcement to address community problems that rarely exist on military installations. Additionally, most Air Force bases are closed installations, cutting the military community off from many of the order maintenance problems that exist in civilian communities. It is natural in a Security Police unit that most patrolmen on the road are low-ranking and that the unit's personnel change over frequently. However, most of these problems, when looked at closely, reveal that they should not prevent a military installation from having an effective community policing program.

#### Jurisdiction

Well known to every military police professional, the most unique and aggravating problem to military law enforcement is the issue of military jurisdiction over civilians. The military has no authority to punish or even arrest anyone who is not a member of the United States Armed Forces. Security Police units are often reduced to the jurisdiction of a private security firm, only able to detain violators for civilian authorities. The only action military authority can take on a civilian is to declare them "persona non grata," barring them from the installation.

This problem does not, however, interfere in the military unit's role as the police force on the installation. Security Police are routinely called by civilian victims and are frequently viewed more as the community's police force than the local civilian jurisdiction. Even if this is a

problem, the jurisdiction issue is solved by the power of Security Police to detain civilian perpetrators until the proper authorities arrive. While this issue is sometimes annoying when the local police or judge do not convict civilians detained by military authorities, Security Police are still in the best position to serve the law enforcement needs of the military installation.

### Rank

Military rank structure could undermine community policing from the aspect that the patrol officer in Security Police units is normally the rank of Staff Sergeant or lower. In many cases, the community members outrank the police officer, creating a possible conflict of interest. This rank structure has been known to cause problems in domestic disturbances and traffic citations. How a high ranking member of the military community would respond to a low ranking patrol officer taking a survey or leading a neighborhood watch program could potentially undermine a community policing program.

The military rank problem obviously will ruffle some feathers in certain situations, but these can be largely avoided with forethought. Largely, most Security Police airmen have no problems giving a captain a speeding ticket or detaining the dependent son of a chief master sergeant for shoplifting. If a community policing action is properly presented as the role of the airman as part of their Security Police duties, then most community policing interactions can be run without anymore interference than current operations cause.

### Perceived Need/Privacy

Another potential problem with community policing is that most residents of a military housing area feel safe and already feel comfortable with Security Police. The community policing concept came out of neighborhoods that were paralyzed with fear of crime and did not

trust the police to solve their problems. However, the lessons of a failed community are just as applicable to a healthy one; the methods of law enforcement that could bring a violence-ridden housing project back from anarchy can only serve to strengthen a healthy community.

Related to this problem of perceived need, it could be interpreted that community policing would force a police presence into the community where it is not wanted and infringe on their privacy. Community members may feel uncomfortable with a strong police presence in certain situations. The short answer to this problem is that community policing philosophy dictates that the police should be responsive to the needs of the community, so if the community doesn't want a police presence, and there is no law being violated, then remove the police presence. Community policing planners should look for areas where police-community interaction is comfortable and welcome on both sides. This problem is not unique to the military installation, civilian community policing programs can encounter the same problem.

#### PCS/TDY's

The next problem that is apparent with military community policing is the frequent rotation and deployment of military personnel. This causes a lack of continuity that makes a lasting rapport hard to achieve. As you recall from our earlier discussion of civilian community policing definitions, the central part of many efforts is to assign patrol officers to a specific neighborhood consistently so that their interaction with the members of the community make the police an accepted and supported part of the community. Can this be achieved in an environment where the community itself permanently changes duty stations (PCS's) every few years; not to mention that Security Police PCS even more frequently and in many cases deploy to training and contingency operations at least once a year?

The initial negative reaction does not stand up to a logical examination of the problem. Anyone who has had experience with a civilian police department knows that the turnover rate of civilian police officers is also high, and that the promotion system creates a situation where mainly the beginners are on the street patrolling the community. Just like Security Police, our civilian counterparts are promoted to overhead positions; tire of policing and change occupations; or transfer to another precinct in order to better their chances for promotion. A 1993 nation-wide community policing survey of departments revealed that 51.9% of community officers were assigned to a "beat" for 2 years or more; 25.4% of community officers were assigned to their beats from one to two years; and 22.7% of community officers were assigned to their beats less than a year. (Trojanowicz, 1994). This creates a situation similar to the military, although not as dynamic.

The lack of permanency in Security Police is not likely to be avoided with the number of remote assignments and increasing tempo of contingency operations in our career field. This liability can, however, be reduced by ensuring that the entire operations flight focuses on the community and makes a concentrated effort to get out of the patrol vehicle and meet the members of the community. It may be impractical to assign a particular airman to a housing area for a year, but if the shift makes a habit of assigning a patrolman to walk through a housing area and get to know the residents at a time when the residents are largely at home, the same objective is being met whether or not the patrolman is always the same police officer. The community is receiving attention that should make the police and community feel like partners; the police appear more approachable to the community; and the community becomes individuals to the police.

Organization/Supervision

Another key concept of community policing that appears to conflict with the nature of service in the armed forces is that community policing thinkers state a need to rid the police department of military structure and leadership (Meese, 1993). When looked at more closely however, these scholars are making a stereotypical assumption about the military, that the military organization and leadership models serve to remove innovation and flexibility from the base of a pyramidal organization. What these community policing advocates are after is a police organization that exists to serve the needs of the patrol officer and allow the patrol officer the discretion to perform their duties and experiment with different approaches to community problems (Meese, 1993). The advocates of community policing are seeking to “empower” the workers to do their job in the best manner they know how, a direct reflection of the quality management way of thinking. It is easy to see that this thinking frightens the critics of community policing as a path back to the corruption of power that grass roots policing caused before reform era policing (Bayley, 1988).

Is this “empowerment” a direct contradiction to the organization and nature of Security Police? Any good Security Police supervisor would tell you no, the concept of “empowerment” is common sense, that you need to listen to the airmen and give them the latitude to learn for themselves. Meese (1993) and thinkers like him are speaking of a Soviet-style military leadership and organization that allows no individual thought and is after blind compliance to orders. This type of military leadership is already not welcomed in today’s Air Force. Even basic Air Force doctrine acknowledges that “flexibility is the key to airpower,” and that the person who performs a certain task is often the best at improving the performance of that task.

The key here is that although Security Police units are often the most rigidly “military” organizations in the Air Force, they still must be flexible enough to allow for innovation and experimentation. Any good Chief of Security Police will agree that the most important person in a unit is the one stripe airman in a patrol car in the middle of the night, and that the all of the overhead functions exist to serve the patrolman. In light of these reflections, it is clear that community policing does not conflict with being a military organization.

### Training Issues

Anyone who has been in Security Police for more than a year realizes that there is simply not enough time to be properly trained on all aspects of the career field. Depending on the local situation, most units lack sufficient training in confrontation management, air base defense, or any number of tasks. An argument against community policing is that it is another program that will try to compete for valuable training time. If Security Police can't be properly trained on the tasks already in existence, then a new program would be just so much more paper.

This military training problem is not a problem due to two reasons, the first of which is that if the program is really necessary, then a unit can't afford to do without it. The second argument is that the program does not require massive training. Military Community Policing is a philosophy, not a program. As such, the philosophy should only require initial familiarization training and should permeate every endeavor that the unit undertakes. Once firmly instituted, community policing should be a self-perpetuating philosophy.

Largely, the Military Community Policing philosophy is already in existence; every time the Operations Officer or Superintendent listens to a dependent's complaint, any time a patrolman goes the extra mile to check on a house that has been having peeping tom problems; it

is community policing. The program should be an awareness and willingness to listen, not a major training commitment. Just as the Air Force Pamphlet stresses, community policing is not a Security Police program, it should be the Security Police philosophy.

Designing an Installation Military Community Policing Philosophy

Higher Headquarters Guidance and Dedication

Air Force Pamphlet 31-2012 does more than define what community policing is, it goes on to lay out the necessary steps for a unit community policing program. These are the same fundamental steps for organizational change that are mentioned by Meese (1993), Sparrow (1988) and a Bureau of Justice Assistance Program Planning guide on “Neighborhood-Oriented Policing in Rural Communities” (1994). These publications are quite useful as a reference when establishing a unit community policing program.

In addition to Air Force guidance, Major Air Commands may have guidance that supplements Air Force Pamphlet 31-2012. Air Force Materiel Command requires that Security Police units report community policing metrics (Air Force Materiel Command, 1995). These metrics not only report statistics, but require the unit to report what corrective actions are being taken in community problems. This may be seen as excessive management by higher headquarters, but it does help reinforce the community policing philosophy and the need to address community problems. These reported problem solving steps could be extremely beneficial if they were shared with other Security Police units across the command.

Perhaps one of the most critical links to a successful community policing program is the support received from wing and group commanders. Every Security Police professional is aware that any Security Police program is subject to the approval of the wing leadership. In order for

community policing to work, the wing and group commanders will not only have to stand behind the Security Police Squadron, they will have to understand community policing themselves. The wing and group commanders have responsibilities similar to the mayor or city manager. These leaders must support the program from the start and be willing to indulge experiments and surveys, as well as listen to the community. Indeed, the commanders should understand that community policing does not weaken their authority, but strengthen their leadership. Resistance may be encountered if the commander does not understand that the community is not dictating to him/her what should occur, but merely keeps the commander better informed of the populace's perceptions. It remains the commander's ultimate responsibility to make the best informed decision on behalf of the military community. The bullet background paper in Appendix A is an example of an attempt to help wing leadership understand community policing.

#### Developing a Strategic Plan

The most important first step in community policing is for the Chief of Security Police (CSP) to make a conscious decision to adopt community policing as an organizational philosophy. The CSP should then appoint a planning team or action officer to lay out the strategy for organizational change (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994). This planning team's first task should be to amend the unit's mission statement to reflect the tenets of community policing (Air Force Pamphlet, 31-2012).

At this point the planning team should take the time to assess the needs of the military community and the unit itself. The military community should be assessed to determine what perceptions it has as well as its attitude toward the Security Police (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994). The views of the commanders and first sergeants must not be overlooked during this step,

since they represent a significant customer of Security Police services. In addition to the needs of the unit's customers, the unit's own personnel should also be assessed as to what their needs and perceptions are (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994). This is necessary for the team to understand what organizational culture already exists, and what issues will have to be addressed to the troops (Sparrow, 1988). Once the internal and external needs are evaluated, the planning team should meet with the unit command and operations staff to determine exactly where the leadership wants to go.

Out of this meeting with the planning team and senior staff should come a statement of unit values. Publishing a statement of organizational values is essential to community policing, since these values create the community-oriented police organization (Wasserman & Moore, 1988). When the senior leadership is deciding on values, they must consider what is to be most important to the unit, the community, and the law (Wasserman & Moore, 1988). They should publish a list of five to ten clearly written organizational values. If the unit already has a values statement as part of the quality program, the quality values statement should be reviewed and updated to reflect community policing. To prevent confusion, there should only be one set of unit values.

The planning team should now develop a plan of action to implement the mission and values set by the unit leadership. The team must consider necessary changes in the day-to-day operation of the unit; goals to be achieved; a timeline for the implementation; how these changes will be communicated; and how progress will be evaluated (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994). This plan must be carefully thought out and critiqued by unit and community members in order to achieve the best plan possible.

### Planning Considerations

When developing a strategic plan for community policing, a primary consideration must be the needs of the community. Military and legal considerations must also be carefully accounted for. There are several issues of community policing that merit special consideration due to the military environment. Some of these military specific considerations will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

#### Training issues.

As already noted community policing is largely misunderstood in law enforcement organizations. While training time is precious to a Security Police unit, in order for community policing to be given a chance, a significant effort must be made to educate the unit in this philosophy. A three hour lesson discussing how and why community policing developed and how it impacts the duties of unit members should be sufficient to get started. Another hour could be devoted to practical application by having the class discuss a community problem of their own choosing and developing a proposed solution. Accordingly, there is a proposed four hour lesson plan for a community policing class in Appendix B.

#### Supervision/Evaluations.

Supervisors must understand that community policing does not diminish their authority or responsibility. Once this fact is understood, Enlisted Performance Reports, Decoration Recommendations, Nominations for Awards, and Letters of Appreciation should begin to reflect the unit's value on initiative and proactive policing. Airmen should be rewarded for going the extra step to help community members; for organizing a neighborhood watch meeting; or for performing crime prevention surveys for base residents. For the most part, giving kudos for this

type of behavior is nothing new, but it must be reflected in action that unit leadership is rewarding those members who embrace the revised unit values.

Continuity.

The turnover problem is not unique to military policing, but it does merit special consideration. Holding a member back from a TDY or PCS because of their involvement in a community program could only be seen as punishment. Most TDY's and PCS's are unique opportunities for a military member to learn more and take on bigger responsibilities. It also cannot be disputed that frequent TDY's and regular changes of station only serve to make a member more promotable. Therefore, the amount of turnover cannot be reduced without hurting the military mission or promotability of personnel.

The effects of turnover can be countered, however, with good documentation by all levels of the unit. Shift continuity folders and crossflow of information has always been important, and becomes even more important when getting to know the community becomes a priority. The operations staff should also take continuity into consideration when assigning personnel to a TDY or moving them to an overhead position. Shift leadership should take the extra effort to get new members off to a good start with the community by introducing them to community leaders and pairing new flight members with experienced patrolmen.

In order to combat the turnover in the base populace, Security Police may want to take the time to introduce themselves to new members in military housing areas to make the residents welcome and comfortable with Security Police. Offering to perform crime prevention surveys in the housing area, as well as conducting community surveys are not only important to community

policing as actions, but also help continuity through frequent and direct interaction between the community and police.

Identifying with neighborhoods.

A common tactic in civilian community policing programs is to assign a patrol officer to a specific area for an extended period of time to foster community interactions. These community officers are often assigned to not only patrol the area but to get to know the residents. This approach is difficult to implement in a Security Police setting. It would best be implemented by permanent shifts and posts. While permanent shifts have been tried by many Security Police units to save manpower, it has the drawback of severely limiting opportunities for members of the midnight shift. Community policing does not work when the community is largely asleep, therefore, permanent shifts also have the draw back of not fostering community involvement in the midnight shift. Permanent assignments would also be a sticking point for many Security Police leaders and troops. It must be admitted that certain posts are routine and lend themselves to boredom and complacency. Shift and post rotation has been thoroughly embraced by Security Police to combat the boredom associated with certain posts.

Two options exist for the unit that strongly desires to have individual shifts/flights identify with specific neighborhoods. The first option is to assign a shift/flight to a specific section of the housing area. Obviously, day-to-day police activities would continue as they are, but that flight would become the focal point for all interaction in that neighborhood. Community surveys, crime prevention surveys, and neighborhood problems would be delegated to the appropriate flight. All security police functions, with the exception of urgent response calls for service, would be handled by the assigned flight.

The second concept is to form a neighborhood security police patrol out of existing manpower. Just like elite guards, and many bike patrols, this section would report directly to the operations superintendent. These patrol officers would perform the duties of following up complaints and surveys in addition to responding to calls for service within their area. In many respects these neighborhood patrols would perform many of the same functions that the security police bike patrols are performing now. Indeed, the best solution here may be to change the utilization of the bicycle patrol to accommodate community policing needs. It should be noted that many civilian police departments use their bicycle patrols as the community police officer function, with the bicycle being a compromise between the approachability of a foot patrol and the response capability of a motorized patrol.

Organization.

The Security Police organization is largely defined by guidance from higher headquarters, but certain considerations must be made when planning for community policing. The primary organizational hurdles for community policing in a Security Police unit are reports and analysis and crime prevention. These offices within the administration section will need to work closely with the operations flight if community policing is to succeed. Reports and analysis will need to provide timely analysis of crime trends to the operations staff if their role is to be fulfilled in recognizing problems. The section should be able to provide to the shifts easy-to-read crime trend reports that identify what crimes are occurring most frequently and any actions that can be taken to help prevent them.

Crime prevention should also become more of a resource manager function that trains and provides information to the patrol officers. The patrol officer should be performing crime

prevention surveys and tips in their area of responsibility, however, the problem is training. The Crime Prevention NCO is usually lucky to have been trained in crime prevention, individual patrolmen are only familiar with the program. The Crime Prevention NCO should ensure that all members of the unit are properly trained in crime prevention principles and coordinate a schedule of tasks to be accomplished by the flights. In cases where the Crime Prevention NCO is also the Resource Protection NCO, including the burden of file documentation, a full blown crime prevention function may be an unreasonable expectation of this individual. The best course of action may be to transfer the crime prevention function to the supervision of the law enforcement superintendent, in order to ensure trouble-free coordination with the shifts.

### Community Policing Tools

Once the philosophy of community policing is accepted, the practical consideration of how to learn the needs and perceptions of the community presents itself. After perceptions are discerned, the consideration becomes how to solve community problems. There is no shortage of tactics for community interaction, feedback, and problem solving. Of the literature reviewed, the basic methods best suited for the military community will be discussed.

#### Surveys.

No military member is a stranger to surveys, the quality movement has made Air Force quality of life surveys, job satisfaction surveys, customer satisfaction surveys, and the like commonplace. The thought of plaguing the military community with yet another survey probably offends the sensibilities of most, but the value of a good survey to gauge the perceptions of the community cannot be understated. Perhaps the best resource for writing surveys is a book entitled Asking Questions: A Practical Guide to Questionnaire Design by Sudman and Bradburn

(1982). This book gives practical advice for designing surveys and administering them; one of the principle lessons of the book is that the best questions are those that are plagiarized (Sudman & Bradburn, 1983). The authors believe that questions asked by other researchers in their studies have the advantage of already being field-tested, and can be readily adapted for use (Sudman & Bradburn, 1983). Sudman and Bradburn (1983) also note that if the questions in a survey are drawn from other studies, then the new results have the added advantage of having previous results for comparison.

A sample survey for military housing residents is included in Appendix C. Using the advice of Sudman and Bradburn, a survey was designed for Seymour Johnson Air Force Base using three previous surveys as a basis. The first of these surveys was a London study of attitudes towards the criminal justice system by Sparks, Genn, and Dodd (1977). The second was a guidebook of the Texas Law Enforcement Institute for the evaluation of community policing efforts (Carter & Sapp, 1992). The third was a survey of community policing efforts in the United States (Trojanowicz, 1994). These three surveys were combined and placed into a format for an interviewer to go door-to-door through base housing. Sections of the final survey include a fear of crime survey, a victimization survey, a survey on the public's attitude towards police, and a survey on the public's attitude towards police services.

The victimization portion of the survey was taken from the London survey, using the simple question of whether or not the respondent or a family member was the victim of a crime in the past 12 months (Sparks et al., 1977). The respondents were then asked to describe the crime they were a victim of and specify whether it occurred on the military installation or off. This direct approach may cause the respondents to under report crimes that are embarrassing to

them, however, when asked questions on the amount of crime that takes place, the respondents should indicate a correspondingly higher perception.

The fear of crime portion of the survey was also taken from the Sparks' London survey, using their approach of whether there was a place nearby where the respondent did not feel safe (Sparks et al., 1977). This question was expanded to ask if the respondent felt safer on base and whether or not they felt safe enough to walk alone at night. The attitudes of the community were also polled, as in the Sparks survey, whether or not the respondent knew their neighbors and if they felt their neighbors would come to their aid if they were in trouble (Sparks et al., 1977). These questions were intended to measure the cohesiveness of the community; this data is intended to be contrasted with the average length of time the respondents reside on base. The perpetual moving of personnel from one installation to another could tend to put a strain on community life.

The perceptions towards the police and crime portions of the survey were taken from the guidebook written by Carter and Sapp (1992) and Trojanowicz's (1994) survey of police departments. These questions centered on asking respondents to express their perception of how frequently crimes occur as well as what police services are the most important and what priority should be given to preventing various crimes (Carter & Sapp, 1992). These scaling questions were joined by a series of yes or no questions that asked about satisfaction with police services offered on the installation. Those respondents who had called Security Police in the past 12 months were asked to express their satisfaction with the services provided on a scale of very satisfied, somewhat satisfied, or unsatisfied.

The survey's final format was designed for an interviewer to solicit the respondents in person. Some of the questions regarding rating police services could only be effectively asked by presenting the question visually. A good method for obtaining a random sample of the base population is to use a random listing of base housing units obtained from the base housing office's computer. Once the data was collected, the responses could be entered into a database so that a description of the community members' perceptions could be made. The responses can be listed as percentages of those polled answering in a specific manner to the question.

Appendix D contains an example of a survey designed to assess the perceptions of the squadron commanders and first sergeants. This survey is largely based on the base resident survey, but deletes questions on crime victimization. This survey is an important tool for understanding the perceptions of the installation leadership towards Security Police. The unit commanders and first sergeants receive the bulk of Security Police reports and services, and their opinion is an important part of the Security Police environment.

Appendix E contains an example of an internal survey designed to measure the perceptions of the unit personnel. This survey was based on an Air Combat Command job satisfaction survey from 1994 as well as the guidebook for the Texas Law Enforcement Institute for evaluating community policing efforts (Carter & Sapp, 1992). This survey is designed to assess the perceptions of unit members towards the base populace, their duties, and their perceptions towards the base populace. The survey also includes questions on demographics, such as education level and socioeconomic background. This particular survey should provide a good starting point for assessing unit member's perceptions, but will need to be revised to reflect local needs.

Community councils.

Another concept from civilian community policing which provides an excellent community feedback mechanism is a community council. A background paper supporting community councils on military installations is located in Appendix F. Briefly, the community council can be an important part of making the military community feel that their concerns will be heard. The councils can take many forms:

- Town Meeting -- the same type of meeting that is common on some bases today, organized regularly with an agenda to discuss community law and order problems in addition to physical maintenance concerns.
- Elected Representative -- this is sometimes used on Army posts, where each housing area has elected a representative to act as a liaison between the members of the community and the senior staff; the representative would have access to senior staff members as well as attending regularly organized meetings.
- Cluster Chief -- the same system that predominated military housing areas in the 1970s and 1980s, the senior military member on a street or cul-de-sac would be responsible for community issues and concerns.

Any of these options would only work if the Security Police and wing leadership were dedicated to listening to concerns of the populace, and interested in the system.

The predominant resistance to this approach to community feedback is that the leadership often feels that this is subscribing to a democratic method. This is not the case; the councils are advisory in capacity, and chartered as such. The group and wing leadership are still ultimately responsible for deciding on the issue, it is merely a method to make a better informed decision.

Security Police leadership and patrolmen should be highly encouraged to attend these meetings or functions in order to gain valuable interaction. Civil Engineering representatives should also be encouraged to attend since physical maintenance issues will undoubtedly arise.

Community Officers,

Just as discussed in the identifying with neighborhood sections above, the civilian community has largely placed community policing in the hands of officers assigned to communities. Many of these civilian efforts center around problem neighborhoods; in Columbia, South Carolina, community officers are stationed in police sub-stations located in housing projects (Young, 1995). Sergeant E. T. Young (1995) related that these community officers are charged with getting to know the populace and gain their trust; they routinely interact with the children of the community and provide safe diversions (sports, VCR movies, etc.) for them.

Obviously, Security Police units are very rarely faced with these type of problem neighborhoods, yet the principles are sound. Military youth are often bored and engage in mischief to pass the time. Some military members and their spouses do not trust Security Police or view them as antagonists. The routine and friendly presence of Security Police members in military neighborhoods can do nothing but help community relations, if properly managed. The stress must be placed on getting to know the members of the community and gaining their trust. Security Police and military youth interaction has a great potential to reduce the amount of order maintenance crimes and mischief that occurs. These programs could be implemented in any of the ways listed in the previous section on identifying with neighborhoods.

Problem solving strategies (SARA).

Problem oriented policing is the portion of community policing that concerns itself with the recognition of community problems and their successful resolution. The most widely used strategy in civilian agencies, SARA, is also described in section 3.3 of Air Force Pamphlet 31-2012. SARA is an acronym for Scanning, Analysis, Response, and Assessment (Spelman & Eck, 1987). To give a few examples, this approach was taken by the city of Wilmington, Delaware, with great success in solving hard reoccurring problems in 1992, (Nolan & Nuttall, 1993) and city of Newport News, Virginia, to restart a crime ridden area of the city in 1985 (Sparrow et al., 1990).

In the SARA model the operations staff, reports and analysis section, and individual shifts are constantly scanning the installation for potential problems. The analysis phase is not only the responsibility of the operations staff but also reports and analysis, where information relevant to the problem is gathered. During the response phase, a strategy is developed to successfully solve the community problem. In many cases this strategy may be most expediently decided by the operations staff, but in order to get community and internal involvement, a process action team may be better suited. A process action team should follow the guidelines established by the Air Force Quality program but note that, if possible, a member of the community should be included. The final step of assessment is the important step of making sure that the action taken actually solves the problem, and the strategy is refined to accommodate inputs from those implementing the action.

Information management.

Information management is an emerging community policing technology developing from the requirements of problem oriented policing (Sparrow, 1993). The number crunching necessary to provide useful reports to the shifts is excessive. Only by using database programs creatively can crime trends be readily seen. The Rochester, New York, Police Department has developed a teamworking approach where the crime analysis section scans for city-wide crime trends through computer projection techniques. Deputy Chief of Police Duffy and Lt. Cole of Crime Analysis credit the program with accurately predicting a 4% increase in robberies over the past two years, causing appropriate actions to be taken ahead of time (Cole, 1995). The program is also responsible for the recent capture of a serial rapist that had been plaguing the city for eight years. Using crime analysis and the cooperation of the parole department, Lt. Cole started with a list of parolees that were incarcerated during the time when no rapes occurred using the particular modus operandi of the perpetrator (Cole, 1995). After the list was narrowed down, the approach proved successful when the rapist was detected using surveillance and forensic evidence (Cole, 1995).

Due to the interest in community policing, the Police Executive Research Forum is developing computer software to make crime analysis easier (Kenny, 1995). This software should make crime trends geographically and chronologically apparent. The software is designed to be used in conjunction with laptop computers in patrol cars, but the data could be entered into a personal computer as well. The program performs all of the analysis automatically and is supposed to present it in an easy to understand manner. The program should be ready for

distribution to government agencies at minimal cost in November 1995. The agency is listed in Appendix G, a listing of community policing resource agencies.

### Implementation and Feedback

Once the planning team comes up with a plan to follow and the Chief of Security Police approves it, education is obviously the next step. The entire unit should be made aware of what is going to occur and a basic understanding of why the change is necessary. Base leadership and community members should also be informed as widely as possible. One theme should be that nothing is wrong with police service as it is, just that Security Police are striving to improve service.

The leadership of the base and unit should be aware that actual reports of crime may go up for a while, as residents see Security Police more frequently and are solicited to accurately report crimes. It is a well-established, statistical fact that a large percentage of crime goes unreported for a variety of reasons (Maguire & Pastore, 1994). It naturally follows that if the community is being asked to report all crime to help the police, then reports of crime may actually increase. This is nothing to be alarmed with, as the spike in reported crime may actually accompany a decrease in total crime.

The key to the implementation of any community policing strategy is continual feedback, from the community and the unit itself. Periodic surveys, meetings, training, and the entire range of activities should cause the unit to continuously update its community policing efforts. The only limit to the actual tactics used in community policing is imagination, once the organizational philosophy has taken root.

### The Seymour Johnson Air Force Base Experience

The Fourth Security Police Squadron at Seymour Johnson Air Force Base, like many Security Police units, undertook the road to community policing unknowingly at first. The Air Force quality movement caused the unit to begin looking at how they policed their community. In response to the quality movement, the Fourth Security Police Squadron began a number of programs designed serve the base populace better (Baker, 1995):

- A bicycle patrol was formed by taking personnel out of existing manning, as many other Security Police units did, to enhance customer relations.
- Crime hazard notices began to be posted on unsecured property, Operation SLEEP TIGHT.
- Unit members teach the DARE program in three local schools.
- The unit takes part in a juvenile restitution program which takes adjudicated juveniles and places them in the custody of the Security Police for community service work. The program hopes to help the juveniles by putting them in contact with positive role models, the unit members with whom they interact.
- The unit also began an intensive community relations campaign, known as Ambassador Spirit. The program was directed by senior leadership to make the Security Police a more friendly and customer oriented organization.
- The unit appointed a non-commissioned officer to coordinate community policing efforts. This individual supervises the gate guards and bicycle patrol, and strives to improve the community efforts of the unit.

Less than two years ago, the unit also began using problem oriented approaches to policing. The first of these efforts dealt with a perception that crime was occurring on the

installation by persons jumping the perimeter fence (Baker, 1995). Using a statistical approach, the operations section directed numerous two hour perimeter patrols to research the problem. The program found that there was no statistical evidence to conclude that the crime on base was being committed by persons illegally entering the installation (Baker, 1995). The problem solving approach was successful in recognizing a pattern of burglaries in the housing area. This pattern consisted of a specific floor plan being targeted in the early evening. Using this information, the base populace was educated to prevent the incidents.

As part of the Air Force quality program, senior leadership has frequently formed teams to develop operational plans (Baker, 1995). These teams formulate unit responses to peace protests and holidays that required increased police manning. Teams were also formed to look into the possibility of gang activity on the installation and a number of other issues. The teams were well aware that they were providing input so that the senior leadership could make a better informed and well thought out decision. These teams have supplied excellent insights to senior leadership.

While these programs are impressive and come from a concern for the community the Fourth Security Police Squadron serves, they do not constitute a community policing program. What is needed for a community policing program is more than individual tactics, the entire organizational philosophy must be centered around the community it serves. The unit inadvertently started doing this through its yearly strategic planning conference, as part of the Air Force quality movement. This strategic plan was concerned with customer satisfaction and key processes to achieve unit goals (4 SPS, 1995). Many of these goals are community oriented and the unit has dedicated itself to serving that community better.

The unit intends to improve its community policing program by following the steps listed in this handbook. Senior leadership will be holding a strategic planning conference in December 1995 that will incorporate community policing as its organizational philosophy. Once the unit has re-worded its mission statement to reflect the community policing philosophy, the strategic planners will develop unit values to guide the organization.

Due to current installation limits on surveys, the Chief of Security Police will continue to work with the Support Group Commander for approval to implement the internal and external surveys. The unit is considering a survey the base populace randomly by using the bicycle patrol to contact base residents. While it could be argued that a uniformed, armed police officer surveying the populace could bias the survey; the senior leadership felt that this potential bias is outweighed by benefits of establishing positive contact between the community and police officers regularly. The bicycle patrols may be used to survey approximately fifty base residents a month and enter the information in a database; the data would be reviewed monthly by all shifts and the senior leadership. This plan would provide the unit and wing leadership with a current and historical measure of community perceptions, allowing better insight to the community. More comprehensive surveys may be undertaken on a yearly basis. The internal survey as well as the commander and first sergeant survey will be administered to one hundred percent of the respective groups annually. The results of all of these surveys will be entered in a database and reviewed during the yearly strategic planning session.

The concept of holding periodic meetings of a community council is also being discussed with the wing leadership. The intention of this program is to provide a regular forum for

concerned members of the installation community to voice their concerns directly to the military leadership of the installation.

With the publication of this handbook, the unit will begin educating its members on what community policing is and what is expected of them. This education will be accomplished by using the lesson plan in Appendix B. The lesson plan will be taught to unit members in small groups; the practical application portion of the lesson plan will be used to address current unit and community problems. The results of these discussions will be reported to senior leadership for consideration.

By implementing these steps at Seymour Johnson Air Force Base, the Fourth Security Police Squadron hopes to improve the police services they provide to the community. These actions contain built-in feedback loops in the periodic surveys, continuous surveying of the base populace, community councils, and problem solving workshops. The approach should serve to greatly improve the community policing efforts at Seymour Johnson Air Force Base.

### Conclusions

Many Security Police instinctively feel that community policing is a concept better suited to civilian law enforcement agencies. Community policing also is largely misunderstood by many military and civilian law enforcement professionals. This handbook should point out that community policing is a valuable law enforcement program. In fact, when the entire philosophy of community policing is taken into perspective, many Security Police will find themselves saying that the values and goals of community policing are common sense.

While this handbook is far from all-inclusive, it was designed to educate the military law enforcement planner on what community policing is and how to apply it to their installation. The resources contained in this handbook were designed to point the military planner in the right direction, each unit should develop its own program and the tools to go along with it. After all, the key to community policing is doing what makes sense for each individual community.

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Appendix A  
**BACKGROUND PAPER**  
**ON**  
**MILITARY COMMUNITY ORIENTED POLICING**

On 1 May 1994, the Air Force published Pamphlet 31-2012, titled “Air Force Community Policing.” This pamphlet lays the groundwork for a new concept in police strategy that has been sweeping our nation’s civilian police departments since the mid 1980’s. However, in order to properly implement such an initiative, community policing needs to be defined, its goals set and committed to by the chain of command.

***What is Community Oriented Policing?***

The first question that needs to be answered is what is community policing? The Air Force Pamphlet stresses in its first paragraph that community oriented policing is a philosophy, not a strategy. This philosophy grew out of the increasing crime problem law enforcement was facing in the United States and its apparent inability to deal with the problem (Kelling, 1988). A noted criminal justice academician, James Q. Wilson authored an article in 1982 that identified neighborhood disorder as the major problem facing communities. This thinking prodded police officials to begin assessing how the police could better work with citizens to combat crime before it occurred.

Reflection and study of history showed that the best defense against crime is the community itself. French sociologist, Emile Durkheim, wrote in 1895 “crime enhances social

solidarity within the community by bringing people together in opposition to the act which violates the law" (Conklin, 1992, p. 109). To accomplish this, police departments across the country have been tuning themselves to address the needs of the community they serve (Kelling, 1988). Many critics argue that community policing is only an extension of crime prevention programs that have existed in police departments for decades (Trojanowicz & Carter, 1988). This critique is largely true, as community policing takes crime prevention out of the office and to the street with the patrol officer (Trojanowicz & Carter, 1988). But more than this, community policing is an organizational culture that must pervade the entire organization.

Therefore, community policing can be defined as an organizational philosophy that tunes itself to serving the needs of the customer, namely the community. According to Mary Ann Wycoff (1988), most community policing efforts include non-threatening, supportive interactions between the police and citizens that include:

1. Listening to citizens that may be neither victims or perpetrators of crimes
2. Taking citizen's definitions of community problems seriously, even when they are contrary to the perceptions of the police themselves
3. Solving the identified problems, sometimes by working together as police and community

#### *Adopting Community Oriented Policing to the Military Community:*

This philosophy is not far removed from the Total Quality Management (TQM) movement that has been sweeping the country in industry and the Air Force itself (Trojanowicz & Carter, 1988). The problem facing Air Force Security Police now is the same one that faces

the Air Force in the adoption of TQM, that is, how to take the good elements of a philosophy designed for the civilian world and not dilute our basic nature as a component of the United States Armed Forces. The very fact that community policing moves the organization of a police department away from the military organizational model would be detrimental to the combat effectiveness of a Security Police unit (Meese, 1993). It would be unrealistic to expect a young airman to be free of military hierarchy in his day-to-day functioning, but to expect him/her to efficiently function under such a system when deployed on combat operations.

This is why care must be taken in proceeding with the community policing model in any military setting. Certain programs and tactics may be seen as revolutionary in the civilian setting that may be detrimental or failures in the military setting. When selecting the course to take in the military setting, the best tools are commitment to the program, research, training, and patience on the part of the chain of command. Community policing by its nature encourages innovation and experimentation on the part of the patrolman, tolerance of mistakes must accompany any hope of fostering free thinking and innovation (Meese, 1993).

### ***What to expect.***

The first question of the command staff is bound to be, "What changes will I see in the Security Police?" The changes internal to the Security Police Squadron will not be readily apparent to the outsider. As far as day-to-day services, there should be no interruption in the normal security and law enforcement services provided to the military community. However, Security Police will start collecting information from the community on what it perceives are the major problems and how the Security Police could improve service to the community.

Commanders will be solicited periodically for feedback on their perceptions of Security Police service to them in our security and law enforcement roles. Security Police should be visibly seen involved in the community in order to breed familiarity and trust. Civilian police departments have experienced an actual increase in the number of crimes reported as a result of the building of trust and citizens' realization than an unreported crime only makes the problem worse.

***Conclusion:***

The bottom line: community policing is a shift from responding to crime to trying to prevent crime from ever occurring. In the words of Malcolm Sparrow (1988, p. 1) of the John F. Kennedy School of Government at Harvard University,

“The concept of community policing envisages a police department striving for the absence of crime and disorder and concerned with, and sensitive to the quality of life of the community. It perceives the community as an agent and partner in promoting security rather than as a passive audience.”

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**Appendix B**

**Proposed Lesson Plan**

**Community Policing**

**Overview**

<b>Section</b>	<b>Subject</b>	<b>Duration</b>
1.	Introduction	10 minutes
2.	Brief History of United States Law Enforcement	50 minutes

**Break in Instruction**

3.	Defining Community Policing	20 minutes
4.	Examples of Community Policing in action	30 minutes

**Break in Instruction**

5.	How to apply Community Policing to the military installation	30 minutes
6.	Supervision with a Community Policing Philosophy (NCO's)	20 minutes

**Break in Instruction**

Classroom discussion of a community problem --

(practical application) 50 minutes

**Instruction Complete**

## **Section 1**

### **Introduction/Motivation**

Good morning/afternoon ladies and gentlemen, my name is \_\_\_\_\_. I will be instructing you for the next 4 hours on the basics of community policing. We will be taking a 10 minute break every 50 minutes or so, in order to keep the blood flowing. Please feel free to address questions to me as they come to mind.

The first question any law enforcement professional has regarding community policing is, "Why do we have to change the way we are doing things, after all there is nothing wrong with the way we protect the community now, is there?" On most military installations this would be a true statement, the military/security police are well-accepted in their role of maintaining order; the major crime problems that many of the United States' large cities are experiencing do not exist on military installations. But the crime problem that many American cities continue to struggle with may have been a direct result of the way in which police interact with the communities they serve. If this is the case, as many scholars have asserted, then military policing functions could learn from the lessons our civilian counterparts learned and improve our service to the military community.

In order to best understand community policing, it is necessary to realize how law enforcement has gotten to where it is today. This brings us to our first subject block, the evolution of United States Law Enforcement. . .

## **Section 2**

### **A Brief Overview of United States Law Enforcement**

#### **The Development of Policing:**

Uniformed police officers patrolling the streets has not always been the method for maintaining social order in the United States. Some of the first settlers, the pilgrims, agreed to a method of law enforcement based on religion when they arrived in the new world, the Mayflower Compact (Fraser, 1995). Through out the history of the colonies, it was often the case that no law enforcement function was set up until disorder made it necessary. In some areas the citizens adopted the English concept of the shire reeve, or modern day sheriff (Fraser, 1995). The sheriff was designated by community leadership to maintain order. This system was most widely used in the south, where the nature of the plantation economy fostered the arrangement (Fraser, 1995). Other New World settlements relied on the “hue and cry,” that is, when a crime was committed, all citizens were expected to raise the alarm and help bring the criminal to justice (Fraser, 1995).

After the American Revolution, the new nation had to establish the standards for order maintenance in the United States. The constitution, however, only directly established the Supreme Court and loosely outlined the Executive Branch to execute the laws of the land; the constitution does not specifically spell out how the police shall be organized or enforce the laws of the land. The founding fathers wrote the constitution so that there would be enough latitude to make it an enduring document, adaptable to the changing times. This set the precedent for experimentation and evolution in the law enforcement community. It should also be noted that the prevailing attitude of the United States, drawn from the abuses of power of the English crown

during colonial times, has been a fear of strong federal authority and a national police force (Fraser, 1995).

It must be understood that there has always been a governmental function to punish criminals, whether it be the early court of the feudal monarch or the appointed magistrate of the later court system. The courts however, relied on private citizens themselves to bring criminals before them, and had no provisions for professional police to patrol their jurisdictions (Fraser, 1995). This system functioned adequately until urbanization fostered a crime problem beyond the ability of the populace to manage. A movement began for a government law enforcement agency and police patrols though out the cities. Many early efforts relied on volunteering private citizens, hired security forces, private police agencies, or military intervention. The following is a few examples of these efforts from the British Empire:

- The Thames River patrol, a security force hired by the warehouse owners on the Thames River, to reduce the amount of thievery (Stead, 1977).
- The Bow's Street Runners, a private group of men under the leadership of John and Henry Fielding that pursued robbers and acted as a kind of detective agency. This group was hired by private interests and sometimes the English government itself (Stead, 1977).
- Patrick Colquhoun, a local magistrate who appointed constables to practice preventative policing in his jurisdiction. His efforts included providing for the poor through soup kitchens to give desperate individuals opportunities other than crime (Stead, 1977).
- The use of private citizens as night watchmen to maintain order in their communities.

- When the crime problem got completely out of hand the British military was used, however, these efforts were often negatively received by citizens, as the military solution was heavy-handed and excessively violent (Stead, 1977).

The development of industrialized urban centers reduced the effectiveness of the “hue and cry.” The turn of the century in 1800 saw a movement to establish an organized, centrally controlled, professional police force. The first police force was the London Metropolitan Police established in 1829 by the Metropolitan Police Act (Sparrow, Moore, & Kennedy, 1990). This legislation was introduced by Sir Robert Peel, the British Home Secretary, who envisioned a well-educated, professional group of law enforcement officers centrally organized and controlled by the state (Stead, 1977). Peel envisioned not a force to catch criminals, but an agency to help prevent crime; the best measure of a good police force was an absence of crime (Stead, 1977).

The United States was also encountering similar problems in its metropolitan areas, but the strong fear of central authority prevented a federal response to the problem. Rather, individual municipalities tried different approaches and learned from the experience with their counterparts. The earliest experiment with a professional police force occurred in Philadelphia as the result of the provisions of an elderly woman’s will (Fraser, 1995). When the money ran out however, the city did not pick up the funding and the police force went out of existence (Fraser, 1995). Despite this, by the 1870s all major cities in the United States had some sort of professional police force (Fraser, 1995).

The United States also is the scene of a unique chapter in law enforcement history, the wild west. The dime novel stories of Wyatt Earp and Billy the Kid continue today to romanticize this period of enormous lawlessness (Friedman, 1993). The United States government set about

settling the western territories in a haphazard fashion, failing to install local law enforcement agencies (Fraser, 1995). The federal government had established agencies to meet its responsibilities of protecting the nation from external threats such as the American Indians and protecting federal revenue interests and services such as the postal channels; but in the tradition of keeping federal authority out of local law enforcement, the residents of federal territories were often left to protect themselves from fellow citizens. This left vigilantism, posses, lynch mobs, and locally hired sheriffs to enforce laws in the territories (Friedman, 1993).

In the 1870's, in order to induce westward expansion, the federal government sent United States Marshals out west to enforce laws in replacement for the local vigilantism (Fraser, 1995). The Marshal Service, formed in 1789 to guard federal prisoners and issue warrants, found many of its members unwilling to leave their homes in the East. As a result the Marshal service often appointed notorious thugs to the position of U.S. Marshal to help keep all of the other thugs in line (Fraser, 1995). The resulting brand of law enforcement was colorful to say the least, and caused eastern states' law enforcement officials to adopt the methods of the western territories in a natural response to achieve the notoriety and respect their counterparts had achieved (Fraser, 1995). This period continues even today to haunt the image of what law enforcement officers think they should be, the lone sheriff and his deputies standing between the helpless townspeople and the lawless desperado.

Added to the romantic fascination with excessively violent law enforcers of the American frontier, the development of locally controlled city police forces left the police subject to the forces of abuse of power and corruption (Sparrow et. al., 1990). The police, while knowing their community well, were often corrupt; one example of this was a district in New York City being

dubbed the “Tenderloin” as a result of the lucrative bribes and graft which allowed police in the district to routinely serve their families tenderloin steak instead of chuck steak. (Sparrow et. al., 1990). Scandal after scandal rocked the country, with local police ending up being the private police of the district politicians, a change in elected official often ushered in a wholly new police force.

In 1929, President Herbert Hoover chartered a commission to look into the general failure of the United States to control crime (Friedman, 1993). While the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement studied all aspects of the criminal justice system, the Report on Police is most informative to the problems facing law enforcement. The report concluded that control of the police by local politicians is an invitation to corruption and any hope of a viable police force is linked to the sound management of the force by a well-educated and trained Chief of Police (National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, 1931). Policing pioneer August Vollmer chiefly authored the report, which called for a more autonomous police force under the central authority of a police chief who could only be replaced for a well-proven cause (National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, 1931). The report also called for better training of the police forces of the United States, as research revealed that the police of the time were woefully unqualified, poorly trained (if at all), and had little incentive to become a police officer (National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, 1931). This report is responsible for a new era of policing called the Reform Era.

#### Reform Era Policing:

Reform policing is typified by the principles of August Vollmer and the work of O. W. Wilson (Sparrow et. al., 1990). Vollmer set the standards that police attempted to achieve in his

Report on Police, and Wilson, a student of Vollmer's at the University of California, is largely credited with implementing them in a model for the rest of the country to follow (Stead, 1977). Wilson's leadership of the Oklahoma City Police force, notorious for scandals, showed the nation that a strong military style organization could solve many of the corruption problems, and the use of motor vehicle patrols could greatly enhance the police's ability to respond to crimes (Stead, 1977). The reformers were big advocates of using technology to enhance the effectiveness of the police. They felt that the faster the police could arrive on the scene of a crime , the more likely they were to catch the criminal in the act or track them down (Sparrow et. al., 1990).

Police officials were reluctant, at first to model their departments after the vision of Vollmer; after all, they were profiting from their alliance with local politicians (Sparrow, et. al., 1990). As the pressure to clean up policing increased, however, the police leadership began to adopt Wilson's interpretation of Vollmer's ideas. The reform model included the attraction of making the police chief more of a powerful figure in local politics (Fraser, 1995). To prevent corruption, the reform police organization was closely modeled after a military unit, with a strict chain of command and authority (Kelling & Moore, 1988). Police headquarters became the center of power and precincts became field units of headquarters. The reform organization took many of the responsibilities for investigating crimes away from the precincts. Central investigative squads for the major crimes were part of the specialist mentality that pervaded Wilson's reform model (Sparrow et. al., 1990).

The reform model succeeded in making the police accountable to central authority and more efficient in operating. However, the reform model had major flaws, it left the police with

crime control through arrest as their primary function (Sparrow et. al., 1990). The police came to view themselves as the thin blue line standing between society and lawlessness. The reform model largely succeeded in removing local community involvement as a source of police corruption, however, the trusted local patrolman was replaced by an authoritative, impersonal police officer (Sparrow et. al., 1990).

The reform era left the police hopelessly out of touch with the community it patrolled. The efforts to minimize police contact with the corrupting forces of the community, as well as placing the majority of patrol officers in motorized cars, prevented community ties with the officers that patrol their streets. This effect was amplified with the advent of the 911 central dispatching system, that prevented the local precinct house from having any contact with the community except when dispatched by headquarters (Sparrow et. al., 1990). Communities began to feel alienated and viewed the police as invaders or even enemies.

The tactic of rapid response and crime control have also become the subject of controversy. An experiment in 1974 by George Kelling showed that changing the amount of police patrol coverage in areas of Kansas City failed to show a resulting change in the amount of crime (Sparrow et. al., 1990). Additionally, the statistics show that the majority of reported crimes are reported after the fact, so no amount of rapid response will catch the perpetrator in the act (Kelling & Moore, 1988). At the same time, calls for rapid response and service have increased dramatically with the installation of the 911 system, while the amount of police resources have remained the same (Sparrow et. al., 1990). Studies have also shown that investigation and material evidence are rarely successful in solving a crime unless witnesses step forward to identify the criminal (Sparrow et. al., 1990).

The principle of community service has also been criticized, citing studies that show the majority of calls to 911 involve not crimes in progress, but complaints on traffic, loud noise, or order maintenance (such as pan handlers and mischief) (Sparrow et. al., 1990). Surveys have also shown that the majority of the populace are typically immediately more concerned with order maintenance crimes than the Part I Offenses of the Uniform Crime Report (Trojanowicz, 1984).

The Reform Model found itself battling these criticisms during the social upheaval of the late 1960's. The Vietnam War protests and racial unrest saw increasing pressure on the police, and decreasing satisfaction with the communities they served (Kelling & Moore, 1988). Two Presidential Commission during this era looked into the problems with the United States criminal justice system. These commissions concluded that better education, training and resources were needed to address the problems of the country (Fraser, 1995). As a result of the funding supplied to police agencies through the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration and research from the National Institute of Justice, the long stagnant reform model of policing began to evolve (Fraser, 1995).

#### The Advent of Community Oriented Policing:

The law enforcement community of the 1970's and early 1980's found itself challenged with the failure to effectively control crime and the near collapse of social order in the inner cities and housing projects (Kelling & Moore, 1988). Desperate police chiefs began to experiment with new concepts that involved getting the police back into the community to gain trust and respect (Sparrow et. al., 1990). Foot patrols, Police Athletic Leagues, Crime Prevention Squads, and Police-Community Relations Units came into being to try to address the lack of

partnership between the police and the communities they protected. These efforts met with some successes and the concept community policing began to take shape.

Some examples of these innovations were:

- The Los Angeles Police Department's Senior Lead Officer Program; a single patrol officer that was responsible for initiating and maintaining community relations, but maintained his position as a patrol officer. These officers educated citizens in crime prevention and held community meetings (Sparrow et. al., 1990).
- Dr. Robert C. Trojanowicz's experiments with reinstituting foot patrol officer's in order to break down the patrol car barrier between police and citizens. These experiments led to Trojanowicz establishing the National Foot Patrol Center at the University of Michigan (Trojanowicz, 1984).
- Baltimore County Police Department's Citizen-Oriented Police Enforcement; the county formed teams to address community problems and with the help of Dr. Herman Goldstein, the founder of the problem oriented policing philosophy, developed a program to address the concerns of the citizens. This program emphasized police officers listening to the perceived problems of the community members and helping the community mobilize to solve the problem (Sparrow et. al., 1990).

A 1982 article in Atlantic Monthly magazine brought large scale attention to the basic concepts of community policing. In the article, "Broken Windows", authors James Q. Wilson and George L. Kelling (1982) propose that it is the process of order maintenance that is most important to community stability. They maintain that if community life is active and healthy, the

community will remain largely orderly, but when signs of social decay like broken windows and abandoned cars begin to appear community cohesion has broken down and social pressure to abide in the law diminishes (Wilson & Kelling, 1982). The authors argued that the police should focus their attention on helping communities maintain order rather than waiting for a crime to be reported (Wilson & Kelling, 1982).

From this point numerous examples of the police working with the community to provide better service. Any newspaper today is bound to contain some example of an innovative police-citizen program, the provision for 100,000 community police officers in the 1994 Crime Bill is a prime example (U.S. Department of Justice, 1994). Community Policing programs can range from police officer's helping to clean up low income housing projects to a bicycle patrol on a military installation. One problem remains however, community policing requires more than an innovative patrol tactic or community awareness in order to become more than lip service..

### **Break in Instruction**

### **Section 3**

#### **Working towards a definition of Community Policing**

The first question that needs to be answered is what is community policing? Air Force Pamphlet 31-2012, "Air Force Community Policing," stresses in its first paragraph that community oriented policing is a philosophy, not a strategy. The authors are warning against exactly what has become of many civilian police department's Community Policing Programs, these

departments have instituted a bicycle patrol or community advisory council without making a departmental commitment to a community policing philosophy. Without such a philosophical shift on the part of the senior and middle leadership, the community policing program is bound to be no more than a bell or whistle to point to for publicity.

Former Attorney General of the United States Edwin Meese (1993) and Harvard's JFK School of Government Professor, Malcolm Sparrow (1988) note that the entire leadership of a police department must make a commitment to change the philosophy of the organization. First off the philosophy needs to be succinctly defined and agreed upon by the department. Then the department must identify values associated with this philosophy and make both the values and philosophy well known throughout the department (Sparrow, 1988). Then the hard part of changing the momentum of the organizational philosophy and values comes in. The new ideas will certainly not take root overnight, in fact it may be years before these new ideas are respected by the entire organization (Sparrow, 1988). However, if the leadership is dedicated to the program and embodies the ideas, the new values will eventually win out.

When an organization decides the philosophy and values that are correct for it, there are of course general guidelines for a community policing philosophy. These guidelines can be best seen through a reflection and study of history. While we have discussed the evolution of American law enforcement, we have failed to note that the beginnings of community policing can be traced back to a French sociologist in 1895. Emile Durkheim wrote, "crime enhances social solidarity within the community by bringing people together in opposition to the act which violates the law" (Conklin, 1992, p. 109). Basically stated, Durkheim believed that the best defense the community has against crime is itself. Durkheim went on to state that if a

community is weakened by fear of crime that it will begin a downward spiral towards the destruction of the community (Conklin, 1992). When built upon by the “Broken Windows” theory that Wilson and Kelling (1982) printed, the police need to address the public’s fear of crime and their reaction to this fear. If the community is allowed to withdraw from community life rather than be spurred into solidarity, the community will become the crime ridden slums seen in so many American cities. Therefore, a good community policing philosophy must address the problem of how the community reacts to crime and what the police role is in the reaction.

Community Policing can be distilled down to an organizational philosophy that tunes itself to serving the needs of the community. Of course, every academician has their own personal definition of what community policing should be. Some of these definitions follow:

- A. Mary Ann Wycoff (1988) -- most community policing efforts include non-threatening, supportive interactions between the police and citizens that include:
  - 1. Listening to citizens that may be neither victims or perpetrators of crimes
  - 2. Taking citizen’s definitions of community problems seriously, even when they are contrary to the perceptions of the police themselves
  - 3. Solving the identified problems, sometimes by working together as police and community.
- B. Herman Goldstein -- “The tactics of community policing are many and varied, Common elements include:
  - 1. “Increased police-citizen accessibility
  - 2. “Use of problem oriented approaches to policing
  - 3. “Aggressive and/or punitive order maintenance strategies requiring police intervention without a specific complaint

4. "Increasing contact between the police and community organizations, and supporting the development of community organization in those neighborhoods where it does not exist"
  5. "Strengthening community cohesion, including perceptions of community order and citizen willingness to 'retake the streets'"
  6. "Encouraging and sponsoring community crime prevention programs" (Greene & Mastrofski, 1988, p. xii)
- C. The 1987 mission statement of the Houston Police Department is an excellent example:
- "The mission of the Houston Police Department is to enhance the quality of life in the City of Houston by working cooperatively with the public and within the framework of the United States Constitution to enforce laws, preserve the peace, reduce fear, and provide for a safe environment" (Greene & Mastrofski, 1988, p. 121)
- D. Air Force Pamphlet 31-2012, "Air Force Community Policing":

" . . . a method of policing which encourages a partnership that identifies community safety issues, determines resources, and applies innovative strategies designed to create and sustain healthy vital neighborhoods. It is a proactive, decentralized policing approach designed to reduce crime, disorder, and fear of crime. The community policing approach has two primary purposes:

- To reduce crime and public safety problems in neighborhoods through police-citizen partnerships.
- To develop neighborhood-based partnerships between police and residents to deliver more effective and efficient police services." (Air Force Pamphlet 31-2012, 1994, p. 3)

You have probably noted by now that community policing sounds an awful lot like the quality program. This similarity is no mistake, the reform era of policing is a direct descendent of August Vollmer, who strongly believed in Taylor's principles of scientific management (Stead, 1977). Vollmer's reform policing was organized around the central premise of specialization and efficiency. Just as this management style failed American policing in the 1970's American industry was also effected (Duncan & Van Matre, 1990). When industry

turned to Deming's Quality Revolution, the management thinkers that were re-shaping America were also consulted by the policing thinkers at Harvard's John F. Kennedy School of Government. The result is the community policing thought that has developed today.

So the quality program does not only resemble community policing but is in fact complementary to it. Community policing is the quality movement applied to the civilian law enforcement community. Putting the needs of the customer first is the same as putting the needs of the community first, for civilian law enforcement. There are, however, complications in applying this thinking to a military installation. These complications will be discussed in depth after we discuss some of the community policing successes in civilian community.

## **Section 4**

### **Examples of Community Policing in Action**

#### **Madison, Wisconsin:**

There is a multitude of sources for success stories with community policing, one only has to go to any Criminal Justice Journal or Police Magazine to see that. However, a fairly scientific study was conducted in 1993 by Mary Ann Wycoff and Wesley Skogan in the city of Madison, Wisconsin. This study was conducted from 1987 to 1990, using the Madison Police Department as test site for quality and community policing concepts. The Madison Police Department divided the City of Madison into an experimental district and left the rest of the city under relatively unchanged police administration. The experimental police district comprised one-sixth of the community and one-sixth of the police force (Wycoff & Skogan, 1993). The experiment consisted of trying to improved public and employee satisfaction with the police force through problem oriented policing, community oriented policing, and quality management (Wycoff & Skogan, 1993). This major goal of the Madison Police Department leadership was to be achieve through the following pre-conditions:

1. “Quality Leadership;
2. a healthy workplace; and
3. physical decentralization” (Wycoff & Skogan, 1993, p. 1).

The authors of the study were attempting to correlate statistical significance with these actions with improved customer and employee satisfaction.

The changes in the experimental police district consisted of:

- an informal work environment that fostered interaction between management and police officers with teamwork, creativity and compromise being stressed
- a four day training seminar on quality management, community oriented policing, and problem oriented policing, utilizing professors from the local university (Including the founder of problem oriented policing himself, Herman Goldstein)
- Giving patrol officers the time to change their schedules to address community problems
- Requiring senior leaders be scheduled for routine patrol from time to time
- Scheduling shifts to have a few minutes of overlap for an enhanced pass on procedure
- Permanently assigning one officer in each of the two patrol areas and having the remaining two officers act as roving patrols
- Not allowing 911 dispatchers to pull patrol officers out of the experimental districts for non-emergency calls, and insisting that only the roving offices be dispatched on to 911 calls (Wycoff & Skogan, 1993).

The effectiveness of this program was measured by a Police Foundation study that primarily used periodic surveys to measure citizen and officer perceptions. These surveys consisted of a survey before implementation and yearly thereafter of the entire Madison Police Department, and a random sample of residents of the city. The results in the experimental police district and the rest of the city were statistically contrasted over the three years of the study (Wycoff & Skogan, 1993). The results showed that the experimental police district experienced improved police officer job satisfaction, reduced levels of crime, reduced fear of crime, and

increased citizen satisfaction with the police service (Wycoff & Skogan, 1993). The results could not, however, be statistically linked to the changes in the management style of the experimental police district. The authors argued that the changes proved the police organizational culture can be changed with time, and the use of community and problem oriented strategies are intuitively helpful (Wycoff & Skogan, 1993).

Seattle, Washington:

Another example of community policing in action started in 1987 in Seattle, Washington's Ranier District (National Institute of Justice, 1992). The drive for change in this area was not the police, but the local Chamber of Commerce that feared recent crime trends threatened the viability of their commercial ventures (National Institute of Justice, 1992). Working with the Seattle Police Department, the Chamber of Commerce founded the South Seattle Crime Prevention Council in 1987 (National Institute of Justice, 1992). Using the power of the press, the Chamber of Commerce and local police precinct Captain convinced the mayor and city council to allow the police to work with community leaders to address the problems the community (National Institute of Justice, 1992). These problems normally were drug distribution areas or "crack houses." The South Seattle Crime Prevention Council listed these problem areas and the police responded by increasing patrol coverage in the area and logging patrol officer's observations of the target areas (National Institute of Justice, 1992). The increased police activity in the areas was intuitively linked to citizen involvement in the area, that served to help drive out the "undesirables" in the area (National Institute of Justice, 1992). Additionally, citizen contact with police helped foster several innovative programs designed to make drug dealing in the area unprofitable and inconvenient (National Institute of Justice, 1992). Additional citizen

involvement and volunteer community programs also helped, such as citizen groups to remove graffiti and landlord groups that agreed to immediately evict suspected drug dealers (National Institute of Justice, 1992).

Future years saw greater participation in the project with other community groups and city agencies getting into the program. In 1989 the entire city proposed a Public Safety Action Plan which encompassed:

- Committing community policing teams (one sergeant and five patrol officers) to community concerns and exempt the officers from responding to 911 calls.
- Crime Prevention Councils across the city modeled after the South Seattle forerunner.
- Police Department Advisory Councils that put the police precinct commanders in touch with their local community leaders.
- A Police/Youth Park Program that has older youth and police officers working together in recreational programs.
- Youth Intervention Program which placed youth at risk in contact with agencies geared to help them avoid gang involvement (National Institute of Justice, 1992).

While this study lacks statistical proof of effectiveness, the authors feel that the community involvement has helped foster a community-police bond that enhances crime prevention efforts. The authors also feel that the fact it took only two years for the concept to spread from one district to the entire city is proof enough that the citizens feel the program is worth their tax dollars.

Wilmington, Delaware:

The Wilmington Police Department started a program in July 1992 that was designed to bring as many city and state agencies together to solve community problems that are beyond the scope of any single agency (Nolan & Nuttall, 1993). This program was designed using a problem solving strategy called SARA, or Scanning, Analysis, Response, and Assessment (Nolan & Nuttall, 1993). Basically, the task force looked for problems; determined the best solution to the problem, including what agencies will be needed; implemented the plan of action; and assessed whether the solution was effective for the problem (Nolan & Nuttall, 1993). This program was designed in a police department that already was using community policing as its operating philosophy, so the task force is best described as a tactic rather strategy. The results of the task force at the publication of Nolan and Nuttall's article (1993) showed that the task force was much more capable of solving complex problems than individual officers on their own. The task force also attests to the success of the community policing program in Wilmington, as this innovative task force solution was thought of by patrol officers.

Reno, Nevada:

The police department of Reno, Nevada had an extremely negative public image; a 1987 telephone survey of the populace showed that the city residents felt the department was "effective but heartless" (Peak, Bradshaw, & Glensor, 1992, p. 29). In order to get over this alienation from the populace, the police department transitioned to a community policing philosophy that was titled Community Oriented Policing - Plus (COP+) (Peak et. al., 1992).

The basic strategy for this program was the restructuring of the police department into three precincts that had greater control over their operations (Peak et. al., 1992). Additionally, community advisory councils were instituted at both the headquarters and precinct levels of

police operations (Peak et. al., 1992). While the community council had no formal authority, the police captains were directed to hold meetings periodically and directed to seriously consider the concerns raised at these councils (Peak et. al., 1992). Additionally, a police department quality assurance section was created that was charged with assessing the public perception of the police department by administering semi-annual surveys (Peak et. al., 1992). The last step was to conduct department wide 40 hour training course on community policing, community concerns, special interests groups, and communication skills (Peak et. al., 1992).

The authors analyzed two and a half years of surveys, finding that citizen satisfaction with the police department and police officer job satisfaction had significantly improved (Peak et. al., 1992). Additionally, citizens' perceptions about their relative safety increased with their perceptions of the police department (Peak et. al., 1992). These findings of the authors were supported by a 1988 public approval of a tax increase to fund more police officers(Peak et. al., 1992).

### **Break in Instruction**

## **Section 5**

### **Applying Community Policing to the Military Installation**

Several key concepts of community policing conflict with the nature of service in the armed forces. The first and foremost of these problems is the belief that the cornerstone of a community policing organization is to rid the police department of military-type structure and

leadership (Meese, 1993). When looked at more closely however, these scholars are making a stereotypical assumption about the military, that is that the military organization and leadership models serve to remove innovation and flexibility from the organization. What these community policing advocates are after is a police organization that exists to serve the needs of the patrol officer and allow the patrol officer the discretion to perform their duties and experiment with different approaches to community problems (Meese, 1993). The advocates of community policing are seeking to “empower” the workers to do their job in the best manner they know how, a direct reflection of the quality management way of thinking. It is easy to see that this thinking frightens those against community policing as a path back to the corruption of power that grass roots policing caused before the reform era of policing (Bayley, 1988).

Is this “empowerment” a direct contradiction to the organization and nature of Security Police? Any good Security Police supervisor would tell you no, the concept of “empowerment” is common sense, that you need to listen to the airmen and give them the latitude to learn for themselves. Meese and thinkers like him are speaking of a Soviet-style military leadership and organization that allows no individual thought and is after blind compliance to orders. This type of military leadership no longer exists in today’s Air Force as you and I know it. The basic Air Force doctrine even acknowledges that “flexibility is the key to airpower,” and that the person that performs a certain task is often the best at improving the performance of the task. The key here is that although Security Police units are often the most rigidly “military” organizations in the Air Force, they still must be flexible enough to allow for innovation and experimentation. Any good Chief of Security Police will tell you that the most important person in a unit is the one stripe airman that is in a patrol car in the middle of the night, and that the all of the overhead

functions exist to serve the patrolman. In light of these reflections, it is clear that community policing does not conflict with being a military police function.

The next problem that is apparent with military community policing is the frequent rotation and deployment of military personnel. This causes a lack of continuity that makes the grass roots knowledge and rapport hard to achieve. As you recall from our earlier discussion of civilian community policing efforts, the central part of the effort is to assign patrol officers to a specific neighborhood consistently so that the interaction with the members of the community make the police an accepted and supported part of the community. Can this be achieved in an environment where the community itself permanently changes duty stations (PCS's) every few years not to mention that the police PCS even more frequently and in many cases get deployed to training and contingency operations at least once a year?

The initial negative reaction does not stand up to thinking about the problem logically. After all, anyone who has had experience with civilian police departments know that the turn over rate of civilian police officers is extremely high, and that promotion in the system makes it so that only the beginners are on the street patrolling the community. Just like Security Police, our civilian counterparts get promoted to overhead positions; get tired of policing and change occupations; or put in for a transfer to another precinct in order to better their chances for promotion. A 1993 nation-wide survey of community policing departments revealed that 51.9% of community officers were assigned to a "beat" for 2 years or more; 25.4% of community officers were assigned to their beats from one to two years; and 22.7% of community officers were assigned to their beats under a year (Trojanowicz, 1994). This creates a situation similar to the military, although it is not as extensive.

This same lack of permanency in Security Police is not likely to be avoided with the number of remote assignments and increasing tempo of contingency operations in our career field. The liability can, however, be reduced by ensuring that the entire operations flight keys on the community and makes a concentrated effort to get out of the patrol vehicle and meet the members of the community. It may be impractical to assign a particular airman to a housing area for a year, but if the shift makes a habit of assigning a patrolman to walk through a housing area and get to know the residents at a time when the residents are largely at home, the same objective is being met. The community is receiving attention that should make the police and community feel like partners; the police appear more approachable to the community and the community becomes individuals to the police.

A problem related to this is the military rank structure of military housing areas. In a community where the residents are often grouped by their rank and that rank is publicly recognized by a name plate on their carport, a one stripe airman can be too intimidated to contact community members who largely outrank them. This is truly a rather unique military problem, except perhaps for those cases where a civilian police officer stops the mayor's son for speeding. The Air Force is routinely policed by the lower ranking members of the community, creating a situation where the Security Police patrolman may be intimidated by the rank of the members of the community, or the members of the community may tend to view the patrolman as a lower ranking airman rather than a police official.

Perhaps the best strategy for a neighborhood patrol for a security police unit to take is to direct a foot patrol of random areas at different times, and force the patrolmen interact with the residents by have them soliciting concerns or complete feedback forms. Forcing airmen to get to

know the community, even if they are unsure of themselves or not very sociable in nature would serve to impress upon them the nature of their responsibilities and give them confidence for future interactions. At the same time this gets the community personally familiar with the police who patrol their neighborhood and makes them feel that their input is important to the policing process. This routine interaction has the added benefit of creating a written continuity file for the rest of the operations flight to gain community insight from.

The Fort Jackson Military Police tried this idea in the last half of the 1980's, but a study of the Community Based Law Enforcement (CBLE) program revealed that the patrol officers were often faking community interaction and not behind the program (Hines, 1989). The key here, however, was not the failure of military community policing, but the failure of the patrol officers to support a community policing effort (Hines, 1989). In the Fort Jackson effort, the program was directed from the top down by the local Provost Marshal, it is unknown if the community policing program was a policing tactic or an organizational philosophy to the Provost Marshal (Hines, 1989).

Accordingly, it is important to look at what this unit is currently doing in the community policing area:

*At this time, the instructor must extensively summarize the current community policing efforts of the unit. This should include, but not be limited to, the unit mission statement, values statement (if one exists), and any specific philosophy, strategy, or tactics that relate to community policing. Initiatives that are security specialist related, rather than law enforcement specialty related, should be included. It can not be stressed enough that*

*community policing is for the entire Security Police Unit, to include security and combat arms functions, not just law enforcement. These examples could be as simple as security specialists getting to know flightline workers to raise security awareness and combat arms specialists using realistic examples and situations in their lesson plans. Security specialists serve a very specific neighborhood and should benefit from community policing philosophy more than any other Security Police function.*

## **Section 6**

### **How Does Community Policing Change NCO Supervision?**

Simply put, it doesn't. Community policing does not diminish the authority or responsibility of a Non-Commissioned Officer. In fact, it places a greater emphasis on the responsibility of an NCO to train and counsel airmen. This responsibility is no different than what any NCO worthy of their stripes already does.

A good NCO helps their airmen learn their duties through training and experience. The good community policing supervisor must temper their supervision with the knowledge that their patrol officers must be allowed the latitude to experiment with different approaches to community problems. These experiments will undoubtedly meet with failure from time to time, as experiments tend to do. The community policing supervisor must not punish the patrol officer for failure, but encourage the patrol officer to reflect and try another approach to the problem. This is the major difference between reform era police supervision and community policing supervision. The patrol officer was held to specific procedures in the reform era, with a definite right and wrong. In the community policing era, the patrol officer is told to find a solution that

serves the public good, and does not violate any rights or laws; the situation is no longer black and white but shades of gray. This is perhaps better described by an institutional acknowledgment of the vast discretion a patrol officer must exercise in the course of their duties.

The supervisor of a community policing effort must be well educated in the philosophy and values of their police department and strive to promote these efforts. After all, any community policing effort that is not supported by the entire organization is doomed to failure. Those in the best position to make a community policing program a success or failure are the line supervisors. If lip service is given to the program, and business goes on as usual, the only thing that has occurred is that a lot of administrative effort is wasted in rhetoric. If the line supervisor recognizes the merit of the program and promotes it in their patrolmen, then the program is given a chance.

In order to accomplish this level of knowledge and communication up and down the chain of command the entire organization must be tuned into the concepts of quality management. Although many Security Police shrink from the term, the basic common sense of TQM is undeniable. If TQM is properly administered, it boils down to listening to your troops and communicating with your supervisors honestly and openly. TQM does not reduce the responsibility of the NCO, after all, the responsibility for success or failure of your unit is still yours, it just states that the troops often have good inputs which should be listened to. TQM does not translate to democracy, leadership and authority still exist. The troop is “empowered” in the scope of their duties, not to tell you how to supervise them, that is why you were trusted to be an NCO.

What is the bottom line in supervision with community policing?

- Take charge
- Listen to your patrol men
- When feasible, allow for discussion on the best course of action in a community problem
- Foster innovative thinking
- Make patrolmen deal with community members on a personal level outside of complainants
- Allow for experimental approaches to problems
- Be understanding when good intentioned solutions do not solve a community problem
- Hold patrolmen strictly responsible to abide by the law and civil rights
- Give frequent meaningful feedback, not cheer leading to make patrolmen feel good
- Keep your supervisor informed
- Remember that you are ultimately responsible for all your section does or fails to do, and your supervisor is held to the same standard

## **Break in Instruction**

### **Section 7**

#### **Guided Discussion**

Over the past few hours we have discussed a lot of concepts and ideas. Some of these ideas may be new, some may appear to be only common sense. Either way, we are going to take

this opportunity to discuss the current situation on Seymour Johnson Air Force Base. Once we identify a problem, we will attempt to come to a solution for the problem in the context of the 4th Security Police Squadron's Mission and keeping the needs of the community at the forefront. Keep in mind that in order to properly suggest a solution members and leaders of the community should be a part of this process, but this exercise will only be us here today.

*Instructor:*

- Follow problem solving/process action team steps
  - Identify problem
  - Clearly state problem
  - Brainstorm for potential solutions (not discounting even the ridiculous)
  - Examine potential solutions for feasibility
  - Examine potential solutions for unwanted side effects
  - Settle on solution with best chance of solving the problem
  - Discuss manner in which success will be measured
  - Discuss steps for implementing the solution
  - Discuss feedback mechanism for implementation
  - Author the recommendation to the commander

**Section 8**

**Conclusion/Critique**

We have discussed the events that have led up to the current state of affairs in community policing. We have examined several different definitions of what community policing should be

and looked at some successful community policing programs in action. Our discussion then turned toward some problems in applying community policing to a military installation and talked about NCO responsibilities in community policing. Our final step was to discuss a real community problem with community policing in mind. This concludes this block of instruction on community policing, I hope it has been useful to you. The recommendation of the class on the problem you discussed will be brought up through the chain of command.

I appreciated your attentiveness and hope if you have any question or critiques of the material or my instruction you will bring them to my attention or write them down for me. You are dismissed.

**End of Instruction**

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**Appendix C**

**Community Policing Survey**

**4<sup>th</sup> Security Police Squadron**

**Seymour Johnson AFB Base Residents**

**INTERVIEW DATA:**

Interviewer: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_ Time: \_\_\_\_\_

Address: \_\_\_\_\_

(circle responses)

Final status:      COMPLETED      REFUSED      NO-CONTACT      TERMINATED

**IF A MINOR ANSWERS THE DOOR ASK TO SPEAK TO AN ADULT IN THE HOUSE.**

**READ:**

Good day, my name is (state your name), I am working with the 4<sup>th</sup> Security Police Squadron to conduct surveys of base residents on their attitudes towards crime and Security Police. Your household has been randomly selected by the housing office to participate in this survey. This survey has been approved by the installation commander and is completely confidential, your name will not be recorded unless you wish it, and no information will be used against you or your family.

**DEMOGRAPHICS:**

1. Sex: MALE FEMALE
2. Race: CAUCASIAN AFRICAN/AMERICAN ASIAN HISPANIC  
NATIVE AMERICAN OTHER
3. Age: \_\_\_\_\_
4. Marital status: SINGLE MARRIED SEPARATED DIVORCED  
WIDOWED OTHER

**DORMITORY RESIDENTS SKIP TO QUESTION 7.**

5. How many children do you have? \_\_\_\_\_  
What ages? \_\_\_\_\_
6. Employment status ACTIVE DUTY  
RESERVIST  
BASE CIVILIAN EMPLOYEE  
EMPLOYED OFF BASE  
HOME MAKER  
UNEMPLOYED
7. How long have you lived on base? \_\_\_\_\_
8. How long have you been stationed at Seymour Johnson AFB? \_\_\_\_\_
9. Do you prefer to live on base? YES NO
10. If you could live off base would you? YES NO
11. If yes, why don't you move off base? NOT ALLOWED TO  
COST  
OTHER -- \_\_\_\_\_

12. Do you feel safer on base? YES NO
13. Do you or your spouse feel safe enough to walk alone at night? YES NO
14. Would you let a teen age child walk alone at night? YES NO
15. Is there an area on base where you do not feel safe?  
SPECIFY:  
If yes, do you fear a violence against you or your family? YES NO  
If yes, do you feel this crime would be committed by:  
JUVENILES  
ADULTS  
Do you believe these persons would reside on or off base? ON OFF
16. Do you know the names of your neighbors? YES NO

17. Do you feel that if you were calling out for help your neighbors would:

COME TO YOUR AID	CALL SECURITY POLICE
CALL GOLDSBORO POLICE	OBSERVE, BUT NOTHING ELSE
IGNORE YOU	

18. Have you or a member of your family been the victim of a crime in the past 12 months?

YES                    NO

**IF NO SKIP TO QUESTION 21**

19. What crimes and how often were they committed against you or a member of your family?

Type of Crime	Occurrences	Type of Crime	Occurrences
Murder		Rape	
Robbery		Aggravated Assault	
Burglary		Assault (inc. domestic)	
Larceny (over \$500)		Auto Theft	
Larceny (under \$500)		Domestic Disturbance	

20. Of crimes you or a member of your family have been a victim of, how many occurred on the installation?

Type of Crime	Occurrences	Type of Crime	Occurrences
Murder		Rape	
Robbery		Aggravated Assault	
Burglary		Assault (inc. domestic)	
Larceny (over \$500)		Auto Theft	
Larceny (under \$500)		Domestic Disturbance	

21. What types of crimes do you feel occur on the installation?

4                    3                    2                    1                    0  
FREQUENTLY        OFTEN        NOT OFTEN        INFREQUENTLY        NEVER

Type of Crime	Occurrence	Type of Crime	Occurrence
Murder		Rape	
Robbery		Aggravated Assault	
Burglary		Assault (inc. domestic)	
Larceny (over \$500)		Auto Theft	
Larceny (under \$500)		Domestic Disturbance	

22. Do you think that crime is getting worse in the United States?        YES                    NO

23. Do you think that crime is getting worse in Wayne County?        YES                    NO

24. Do you think that crime is getting worse on SJAFB?        YES                    NO

25. How much priority should Security Police give to the following crimes?

Crime	Much Attention	Some Attention	Little Attention
Burglaries			
Property Destruction			
Auto Theft			
Traffic Violations (Main Base)			
Traffic Violations (Housing Area)			
Robbery			
Theft			
Juvenile Curfew Violations			
Loud Parties			
Other (Specify)			

26. What priority should the following Security Police services be given?

Service	Low Priority	Some Priority	High Priority
Home security checks for families on leave			
Restricted Area Entry Control Point Checks			
Assist people locked out of their cars/homes			
Conducting Crime Prevention Surveys			
Delivering Messages			
Conducting Base Entry Point Checks			
Teaching Children Safety/DARE			
Patrolling the perimeter fence			

27. If you observed a crime would you (check all that apply) . . .

Action	Check	Action	Check
Avoid involvement with the victim		Assist the victim needing help	
Report suspicious activity		Avoid talking with Security Police	
Report an actual crime		Only deal with Goldsboro Police	
Assist police officers needing help		Willingly testify in court	

28. Keeping in mind that there are limited resources, please rank the importance of the following Security Police services 1 through 8 . . .

Service	Check	Service	Check
Motor Vehicle Patrols		Foot Patrols	
Bicycle Patrols		Canine Foot Patrols	
Crime Prevention Education/Training		Talking to Base Residents	
Traffic Enforcement		Investigating Crimes	



45. Does the gate guard check your credentials/sticker?

YES

NO

END

**READ:**

Thank you for taking the time to provide the Security Police Squadron with feedback on their service to the community. If you have any further questions or comments please feel free to write them down at the bottom of this form.

**QUESTIONS/COMMENTS:**

## Appendix D

### Commander/First Sergeant Satisfaction Survey

The following survey is designed assist the Security Police with assessing your satisfaction with their services. Please answer the questions candidly and freely comment at the end of the survey. Questions or direct feedback can be directed to Chief, Security Police.

1. What is your rank?
  - A) Master to Chief Master Sergeant
  - B) Captain
  - C) Major
  - D) Lieutenant Colonel
  - E) Colonel
  
2. Do you receive the Security Police Blotter via E-Mail
  - A) Yes
  - B) No
  
3. How long have you been a commander/first sergeant?
  - A) under 1 year
  - B) 1 to 3 years
  - C) 3 to 5 years
  - D) over 5 years
  
4. How long have you been assigned to Seymour-Johnson Air Force Base?
  - A) Under 1 year
  - B) 1 to 2 years
  - C) 3 to 4 years
  - D) over 4 years

**Please use the following scale when responding to the rest of the questions:**

Agree	Slightly Agree	No Opinion	Slightly Disagree	Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

5. The Security Police provide me with timely incident reports
6. The Security Police provide me with accurate incident reports
7. The Security Police men and women I encounter seem genuinely concerned for the base they serve
8. I trust the majority of Security Police men and women assigned to the base
9. I believe that some Security Police discriminate against minorities while performing their duties
10. The Law Enforcement Desk briefs me personally when appropriate
11. When the Law Enforcement Desk calls me, they provide me with accurate information

12. The Security Police try to remain objective

Agree 1	Slightly Agree 2	No Opinion 3	Slightly Disagree 4	Disagree 5
------------	---------------------	-----------------	------------------------	---------------

13. The Security Police apprehend my personnel when the situation should have been handled with lesser action (e.g. briefed and released, field interview, verbal notification to me)

14. I tend to believe the Security Police's version of an incident rather than my personnel

15. If I have questions for the Security Police involved in an incident, I can easily contact them

16. In general, would you say that compared to last year the installation has become a better place to live, worse place to live, or about the same?

- A) Better
- B) Worse
- C) About the Same

17. How much priority should Security Police give to the following crimes?

Crime	Much Attention	Some Attention	Little Attention
Burglaries			
Restricted Area Entry Control Points			
Property Destruction			
Auto Theft			
Traffic Violations (Main Base)			
Traffic Violations (Housing Area)			
Robbery			
Restricted Area Random Patrol			
Theft			
Juvenile Curfew Violations			
Loud Parties			
Other (Specify)			

18. Please rank order the following Security Police Services from most important (1) to least important (8)?

<b>Service</b>	<b>Rank</b>	<b>Service</b>	<b>Rank</b>
Home security checks for families on leave		Delivering Messages	
Restricted Area Entry Control Point Checks		Conduct Base Entry Point Checks	
Assist people locked out of their cars/homes		Teaching Children Safety/DARE	
Conducting Crime Prevention Surveys		Patrolling the perimeter fence	

19. Keeping in mind that there are limited resources, please rank the importance of the following Security Police activities from most important (1) to least important (8).

<b>Service</b>	<b>Rank</b>	<b>Service</b>	<b>Rank</b>
Motor Vehicle Patrols		Foot Patrols	
Bicycle Patrols		Canine Foot Patrols	
Crime Prevention Education/Training		Talking to Base Residents	
Traffic Enforcement		Investigating Crimes	

20. Do you live in base housing?

- A) Yes
- B) No

21. What types of crimes do you feel occur on the installation?

4 FREQUENTLY	3 OFTEN	2 NOT OFTEN	1 INFREQUENTLY	0 NEVER
-----------------	------------	----------------	-------------------	------------

Type of Crime	Occurrence	Type of Crime	Occurrence
Murder	Rape		
Robbery	Aggravated Assault		
Burglary	Assault (inc. domestic)		
Larceny (over \$500)	Auto Theft		
Larceny (under \$500)	Domestic Disturbance		

22. Have you ever been assigned in a Security Police unit?

- A) No
- B) Yes, I have served as an augmenter
- C) Yes, I was assigned to a SP unit, but not with an SP AFSC
- D) Yes, I was a Security Specialist
- E) Yes, I was a Law Enforcement Specialist
- F) Yes, I was a Security Police Commissioned Officer

23. Most of my troops respect the Security Police

- A) Strongly Agree
- B) Agree
- C) Do not know
- D) Disagree
- E) Strongly Disagree

24. I feel Security Police

- A) Do not use force enough
- B) Use force appropriately
- C) Use excessive force occasionally
- D) Use excessive force frequently

25. I feel most Security Police

- A) Are not trained enough
- B) Have adequate training
- C) Are very knowledgeable

**PLEASE COMMENT ON ANY ASPECT OF THE TOPICS IN THIS SURVEY:**

**Appendix E**

**Internal Perception Survey**

1. What is your current assignment in the unit?

- A) Law Enforcement
- B) Security
- C) Desk Sergeant
- D) Investigations
- E) Overhead/Managerial
- F) Other

2. What is your rank?

- A) Airman Basic through Senior Airman
- B) Staff Sergeant through Technical Sergeant
- C) Master Sergeant through Chief Master Sergeant
- D) Officer

3. What shift do you work?

- A) Days
- B) Night Flights
- C) Overhead

4. How many years have you been assigned to the 4th Security Police Squadron?

\_\_\_\_\_ years

5. For how many years have you held a Security Police AFSC/been on active duty?

(CATM and Support Personnel answer zero, unless you have prior SP experience)

\_\_\_\_\_ years SP / \_\_\_\_\_ years active duty

6. Where do you live?

- A) Dormitories
- B) Base Housing
- C) Off Base

## 7. During a typical duty day how much time do you spend on the following activities?

(If the activity does not apply to your work area place an X in the slot)

Great Deal	Some Time	Very Little Time
1	2	3
	4	5

Patrolling, observing  
 Responding to complaints  
 Performing facility/Restricted Area ECP checks  
 Traffic Enforcement  
 Field Interviews/Investigations  
 Initiating personal contact with base residents  
 Initiating personal contact with personnel on duty in other facilities  
 Counseling families with juvenile problems  
 Following up on juvenile complaints  
 Receiving complaints directly from base residents/personnel  
 Counseling base residents/personnel on crime prevention  
 Writing Reports  
 Appearing in court (Court Martial or as a witness in civilian court)  
 Investigating crimes  
 Making contacts with civilian law enforcement agencies

## 8. If you had more time available, what activity would you engage in more often?

-- place an X in those categories you would spend more time at.

- Patrolling, observing  
 Responding to complaints  
 Performing facility/Restricted Area ECP checks  
 Traffic Enforcement  
 Field Interviews/Investigations  
 Initiating personal contact with base residents  
 Initiating personal contact with personnel on duty in other facilities  
 Counseling families with juvenile problems  
 Following up on juvenile complaints  
 Receiving complaints directly from base residents/personnel  
 Counseling base residents/personnel on crime prevention  
 Writing Reports  
 Appearing in court (Court Martial or as a witness in civilian court)  
 Investigating crimes  
 Making contacts with civilian law enforcement agencies

9. Which activity would you do less often, if you had your personal preference?

-- place an X in those categories you would spend more time at.

- Patrolling, observing
- Responding to complaints
- Performing facility/Restricted Area ECP checks
- Traffic Enforcement
- Field Interviews/Investigations
- Initiating personal contact with base residents
- Initiating personal contact with personnel on duty in other facilities
- Counseling families with juvenile problems
- Following up on juvenile complaints
- Receiving complaints directly from base residents/personnel
- Counseling base residents/personnel on crime prevention
- Writing Reports
- Appearing in court (Court Martial or as a witness in civilian court)
- Investigating crimes
- Making contacts with civilian law enforcement agencies

10. When you look at your daily duty activities, how important would you say each of the following kinds of training were in preparing you for your duties?

Very Important	Some Importance	Not Important
1	2	3
4		5

- Basic Training
- Security Police Academy/Tech School
- Unit Intro Training
- OJT
- Squadron Training Section Classes
- Flight/Element Training
- Personal Preparation for Standardization/Evaluation Testing
- Studying for WAPS Testing
- Personal experience in my duties
- Personal experience outside of the Air Force

11. When you reflect on your daily activities, how important would you see each of the following personal characteristics in carrying out your tasks.

Very Important	Some Importance	Not Important
1	2	3

- |                          |                       |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Intelligence          |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Efficiency            |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Resourcefulness       |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Courage               |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Patience              |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Communications skills |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Flexibility           |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Integrity             |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Courtesy              |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Friendliness          |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Humanity              |

12. What is the adequacy of the squadron's training in each of the following broad categories?

Very Adequate	Adequate	Not Adequate
1	2	3

- |                          |  |
|--------------------------|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | General Security Police skills (e.g. weapons, self defense, driving, report writing)           |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Air base defense skills  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Human relations skills (e.g. public relations, sensitivity, domestic disturbances)             |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Professional/career development (e.g. WAPS preparations, PME availability, coping with stress) |

13. Please rank (1= most important) the training areas in order of their importance.

- |                          |  |
|--------------------------|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | General Security Police skills (e.g. weapons, self defense, driving, report writing)           |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Air base defense skills  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Human relations skills (e.g. public relations, sensitivity, domestic disturbances)             |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Professional/career development (e.g. WAPS preparations, PME availability, coping with stress) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Other (specify)  |
- 
-

14. Please rank (1=best performance) the training areas that the squadron does best

- General Security Police skills (e.g. weapons, self defense, driving, report writing)
- Air base defense skills
- Human relations skills (e.g. public relations, sensitivity, domestic disturbances)
- Professional/career development (e.g. WAPS preparations, PME availability, coping with stress)
- Other (specify)  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

**LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY PERSONNEL ONLY ANSWER QUESTIONS  
15-29. OTHER AFSC'S GO TO QUESTION 29.**

15. On base, how frequent are the following types of crime?

Major Problem	Occasional Problem	Not A Problem		
1	2	3	4	5

- Assault
- Sexual Assault
- Burglary/House Breaking
- Theft (Government of Personal Property)
- Robbery
- Drug violations
- Vandalism
- Child abuse
- Violence between spouses
- Crimes committed by juveniles
- Auto Theft
- Community Nuisances (e.g. loud noise complaints, stray animals etc.)

16. In base housing, how safe do the residents feel about . . .

Very Secure	Somewhat Secure	Not Secure		
1	2	3	4	5

- Walking, jogging, or riding a bicycle in the daytime
- Walking, jogging, or riding a bicycle after dark
- Shopping in the neighborhood
- Participating in special activities in the neighborhood
- Letting children play freely in the neighborhood

17. How would you evaluate base housing residents' feelings of safety?

- A) Residents' over estimate dangers
- B) Residents' perceptions of dangers are accurate
- C) Residents' under estimate dangers

18. While working on patrol, how secure do you personally feel in the following areas?

Very Secure	Somewhat Secure	Not Secure
1	2	3
4	5	

- Walking in base housing
- On the flightline
- In the Welcome Center
- As an Installation Entry Controller
- Entering base facilities
- Answering complaints on base
- Helping victims of crimes
- Conducting field interviews on base

19. In your estimation, how does the safety of base housing residents compare with personnel that live off base?

- A) Safer on base
- B) Same
- C) Safer off base

20. On base, what proportion of the persons you see are familiar to you?

- A) None
- B) Less than one-third
- C) One third to two thirds
- D) More than two thirds

21. Do base housing residents and military personnel "look out for one another"?

- A) Always
- B) Frequently
- C) Often
- D) Infrequently
- E) Never

22. How active are base housing residents and military personnel with regard to the following factors?

Very Active	Somewhat Active	Not Active
1	2	3
4	5	

- Reporting crime
- Assisting victims
- Assisting Security Police
- Reporting suspicious activity
- Following Security Police crime prevention tips

23. To what extent does your work require you to contact:

Great Extent	Some Extent	Not At All
1	2	3
4	5	

- Base Hospital
- Mental Health
- Social Actions
- Chaplains
- First Sergeants
- Commanders
- Wing Command Post
- Staff Judge Advocate Personnel
- Civil Engineering Squadron
- Services Squadron
- Civilian law enforcement agencies
- Other civilian agencies

24. How many contacts do you have with juveniles in an average week?

- A) One or less a week
- B) 2-5 contacts a week
- C) 6-10 contacts a week
- D) 11 or more contacts a week

25. What action do you take if a base housing resident or military personnel informs you of juvenile vandalism?

- A) Acknowledge the complaint and monitor the area
- B) Inform the Law Enforcement Desk and write an incident report
- C) Actively attempt to identify the juvenile
- D) Contact Security Police Investigations for assistance

26. Are there any agencies that you feel the squadron should work with more closely

- Mental Health
- Air Force Office of Special Investigations
- Social Actions
- Civil Engineering
- Base Hospital
- North Carolina Social Services Agencies
- Youth Center
- Services Squadron
- Rape Crisis Centers
- Domestic Violence Organizations
- Substance Abuse Organizations
- Schools
- Civic/service clubs
- Red Cross
- Other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

27. How long would you like to be assigned to flight?

- A) Less than 6 months
- B) From 6 to 12 months
- C) From 1 to 2 years
- D) My entire tour of duty at Seymour-Johnson AFB

28. Did you request . . .

- |                                   |         |        |
|-----------------------------------|---------|--------|
| To be Security Police             | 1.) Yes | 2.) No |
| To be assigned to Seymour-Johnson | 1.) Yes | 2.) No |
| To be assigned to flight          | 1.) Yes | 2.) No |

**ALL PERSONNEL BEGIN ANSWERING QUESTIONS AGAIN WITH QUESTION 29**

29. What do you plan to be your next career move?
- A) Leave the Air Force for another Law Enforcement/Security career
  - B) Leave the Air Force for a non Law Enforcement/Security career
  - C) Cross train to another career field
  - D) Permanent change of station
  - E) Apply for an SP Investigations position
  - F) Apply for an SPA position
  - G) Apply for an SPT position
  - H) Concentrate on studying for WAPS testing
30. How long do you expect to remain in the Air Force?
- A) 0-5 years
  - B) 5-10 years
  - C) 10-20 years
  - D) More than 20 years
  - E) Only until retirement eligible
  - F) As long as I can
  - G) Never thought about it
31. How does your present assignment affect your chances for a desired career move of any type?
- A) Offers good chances
  - B) Offers average chances
  - C) Offers little chance of desired movement
  - D) This is a dead end job
32. To what extent do you personally encourage the base populace to formally report crime to Security Police?
- A) Great Extent
  - B) Some Extent
  - C) Not at All
33. To what extent do you encourage the base populace to formally report non-criminal matters to Security Police?
- A) Great Extent
  - B) Some Extent
  - C) Not at All

34. Over the last few months, to what extent have you felt you were . . .

Great Extent	Some Extent	Not At All
1	2	3
		4
		5

- doing an important job in the Security Police Squadron
- addressing true problems on the installation
- using skills learned at the SP Academy/tech school
- improving Security Police-community relations
- working as part of a Security Police team
- cut off from main Security Police activity
- having trouble being objective when dealing with people on duty
- getting too closely involved with the base populace
- missing the support of your fellow squadron members in your decisions
- missing the support of your supervisor in your decisions

35. To what extent do you agree that, ideally, Security Police should . . .

Great Extent	Some Extent	Not At All
1	2	3
		4
		5

- be accountable for their behavior
- keep some distance between themselves and the base populace
- maintain very close ties with other squadron members
- concentrate major efforts on crime prevention
- be able to recognize the base populace
- try to teach the base populace to recognize and report suspicious activity
- personally provide counseling/guidance to potential juvenile offenders
- try to reassure the base populace by increasing perceptions of personal safety
- coordinate closely with other social agencies to deter crime
- coordinate closely with schools to deter crime
- share resources and problems with other community agencies
- conduct community safety classes to help the base populace
- encourage more complete crime reporting by the base populace
- recognize the needs of victims

36. How important is each of the following to you personally?

Very Important	Some Importance	Not Important
1	2	3
		4
		5

- Maintaining order
- Enforcing the law
- Maintaining public acceptance of the police
- Helping victims of crime
- Preventing crime
- Getting promoted
- Increasing personal skills
- Talking over problems with colleagues
- Moving to administrative work
- Avoiding trouble
- Helping fellow Security Police in follow up investigations
- Staying on flight

37. How enthusiastic are you about your position in Security Police today compared to when you first entered the career field?

- A) More enthusiastic now
- B) About the same enthusiasm
- C) Less enthusiastic now
- D) I never liked Security Police

38. How do you view law enforcement/security/combat arms training and maintenance as an occupation?

- A) It is a profession
- B) It is a skilled trade
- C) It is just a job

39. How important to you is the good opinion of each of the following?

Very Important	Some Importance	Not Important
1	2	3
		4
		5

- Acquaintances outside of the Security Police Squadron
- Fellow members of the Security Police Squadron
- Residents of the Goldsboro area
- Residents of Seymour Johnson Air Force Base
- The law enforcement community in general

40. If you could start all over, would you re-enter the Air Force?

- A) Definitely
- B) Probably
- C) Probably not
- D) Definitely not

41 If you could start all over, would you re-enter Security Police/Combat Arms?

- A) Definitely
- B) Probably
- C) Probably not
- D) Definitely not
- E) Not Applicable

42. What is your age group

- A) 17-19 years old
- B) 20-25 years old
- C) 26-30 years old
- D) 31-35 years old
- E) 36-40 years old
- F) over 40 years old

43. Your gender is . . .

- A) Male
- B) Female

44. Your marital status is . . .

- A) Married to a civilian
- B) Married to another military member
- C) Divorced or Separated
- D) Widowed
- E) Single

45. Enter the number of . . .

\_\_\_\_\_ children living in your household  
\_\_\_\_\_ the number of children you have

46. What is your racial/ethnic identity?

- A) African American/Black
- B) Asian
- C) Caucasian/White
- D) Hispanic
- E) Native American
- F) Other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

47. Enter the number of years of law enforcement/security experience you had prior to entering the military:

\_\_\_\_\_ years

48. What is your educational level?

- A) High school diploma
- B) Some college
- C) Associate's degree
- D) Bachelor's degree
- E) Beyond bachelor's degree

49. In what size town did you grow up?

- A) Rural area
- B) Small town
- C) Suburb
- D) City

**PLEASE COMMENT ON ANY ASPECT OF THE TOPICS IN THIS SURVEY:**

## Appendix F

### BULLET BACKGROUND PAPER

#### ON

## THE NEED FOR COMMUNITY COUNCILS IN COMMUNITY POLICING

#### PURPOSE

- As briefed in Military Community Policing dated 31 JAN 95 written by Capt. Reese, the 4th SPS has initiated a program of community policing
  - Community policing tunes the Security Police into the needs of the community
  - Building on the experience of other civilian agencies that have instituted such programs, there is a need for police/community face to face feedback
  - Most agencies find that a community council or civilian overwatch committee is the best way to help citizens feel their concerns will be heard

#### DISCUSSION

- Given the command relationships of a military installation, there are two conducive ways to institute a community council
  - Town meeting
    - Town meetings would be a scheduled meeting between a council and all base residents who wish to attend
    - The council would consist of the commander and operations staff of security police, as well as representatives from the wing staff, support group staff, Civil Engineers, and Services squadron
      - The Civil Engineers and Services are present not for police matters, but to deal with concerns in their area of responsibility that will invariably come up
    - The meetings would need to be well publicized
    - Meetings should be scheduled at least every quarter, ideally once a month, to be in tune with the concerns of the base residents
    - The council would go over old business in order to provide feedback to the base residents, as well as having an open forum for residents to voice their concerns
    - Merchants such as AAFES, DECA, the clubs, and the financial institutions should also be invited to attend this forum as they are users of police services as well
    - Minutes of such proceedings should be published in the base paper
    - The inherent advantage of this system is that anybody can come to these meetings and have their concerns heard
    - The disadvantage of this system is the lack of structure, and possible size of these meetings make them too large or not well attended depending on public interest
  - Elected Representation

- In this system the housing areas would be broken into districts where residents select a representative to be the point of contact for meetings with the same council in town meetings
- These representatives would have face to face meetings with the council, but also have enough familiarity to bring problems to council members as they come up in their district
- The representatives would not wield any decisional authority, but act as a focal point to gather feedback and disseminate information
- The advantage of this system is that it breeds better familiarity and working relationships between the council and the representatives better than town meetings
- The disadvantage of this system is that it relies on the diligence the representatives rather than allowing each individual a voice in the process
- In order to promote this system, some army installations post the name of the district “mayor” on a sign on the main thoroughfare of the district

#### SUMMARY

- Of the two options, elected representatives would prove a more reliable method of feedback for Security Police, as well as fostering a more cohesive community
- Such a feedback system is not only invaluable to community policing efforts, but will also breed quality culture in the housing and commercial areas

Appendix G

**Community Policing Resources**

Community Policing Consortium  
1726 M. Street NW Suite 801  
Washington DC 20036  
202-833-3305

National Center for Community Policing  
Michigan State University  
School of Criminal Justice  
East Lansing, MI 48824  
800-892-9051  
In Michigan - 517-355-2322

National Institute of Justice/NCJRS  
P.O. Box 6000  
Rockville, MD 20850  
800-851-3420

Police Executive Research Forum  
202-466-7820